The Outlook

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The President and the Labor Unions

Three weeks ago, in reporting the action of the President in reinstating a workman who had been dismissed from the Government Printing-Office because he was not a member of the union, The Outlook said that the President had directed that the principle upon which he had acted in that case should be followed in every department. The letter which he sent to the heads of departments inclosed two letters to Secretary Cortelyou; they have now been made public. The principle which he enunciates is given in these words:

> There is no objection to the employees of the Government Printing-Office constituting themselves into a union if they so desire, but no rules or resolutions of that union can be permitted to override the laws of the United States, which it is my sworn duty to enforce.

He then quoted from the finding of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission:

> It is adjudged and awarded that no person shall be refused employment or in any way discriminated against on account of membership or non-membership in any labor organization, and that there shall be no discrimination against or interference with any employee who is not a member of any labor organization by members of such organization.

The President then made this comment:

> I heartily approve of this award and judgment by the Commission appointed by me, which itself included a member of a labor union. This Commission was dealing with labor organizations working for private employers. It is, of course, mere elementary decency to require that all the Government departments shall be handled in accordance with the principles thus clearly and fearlessly enunciated.

With the publication of these letters there arose the rumor that a general investigation of labor conditions in all the departments had been ordered by the President. This has been denied. What is more important, the policy of the Administration in dealing with Government employees has been distinctly stated. The result makes every concern conducted by the Government an "open shop." In other words, the laws and regulations of the Government have been declared supreme over all rules of labor unions. Clear-headed workingmen will see that this decision is as much to their advantage as it is to the Nation at large. If labor unions were permitted to compel the Government to accept their selection of employees and their determination as to conditions of work, American laboring men would be under the rule of irresponsible associations rather than under the protection of a free republic. The unions themselves, whether they recognize it or not, will profit by this decision, for they will feel the stimulus to maintain their organization by making it stand, not for privilege, but for competency.

❀

Discriminations Against Unionists Legal

While Government officials, under President Roosevelt's directions, are seeking to put an end to arbitrary discriminations against non-union workmen in the Government employ, the United States Circuit Court at St. Louis has rendered a decision that a private corporation may legally discriminate against unionists by discharging workmen for connecting themselves with a union, and by maintaining for itself and giving to others a blacklist of the employees discharged for this cause. The case before the Court was that of Arthur Boyer and others, who stated that they were members of the Commercial Telegraphers' Union, and had been discharged and blacklisted by the Western Union Telegraph Company solely because of their membership in this union. They asked the Court to enjoin the Company from discharging employees because of membership in their union, and from conspir-

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ing to prevent their further employment by means of a blacklist. Judge Rogers, in refusing to issue the injunction, held that the corporation had a right to discharge an employee for any cause, or without cause, unless it thereby violated a contract, and that if it did violate a contract the remedy of the discharged employee was a suit at law and not a writ of injunction. The Court further held that the blacklisting of discharged unionists and the giving of the lists to other employers did not constitute a conspiracy, as there could be no conspiracy to do a legal thing. The very fact, he said, that the union professed to be organized for moral purposes prevented any member from objecting when his discharge was based upon his unionism. The unionist had no more cause for legal complaint than would a member of the order of Freemasons or of the Presbyterian Church if he were discharged and blacklisted for membership in those organizations. All this, it may be said, is quite conclusive from the standpoint of law, but unsatisfactory from the standpoint of justice. In the absence of a statute forbidding it, a corporation may discharge employees for membership in a union just as it may discharge them for membership in a particular church or political party, but the discharging of employees for such reasons has always been resented in America as a tyrannical violation of individual freedom, and has in some States led to the passage of laws forbidding such discharges. Workmen have the same natural right to join unions not directed against the public welfare that capitalists have to join corporations not so directed, and the attempt to deny equal rights brings public sympathy to the side of the intended victims. The action of the Western Union Telegraph Company in discharging and blacklisting employees for membership in the union is certain to make new friends for the cause of unionism.

❀

A Walking Delegate Convicted

On Friday of last week Samuel Parks, the walking delegate of the New York Housesmiths' Union, was convicted of the crime of extorting two hundred dollars from Josephus Plenty, a contractor for skylights on the new Hamburg Line pier. The contractor, it may be recalled, charged that he had paid this sum to settle a strike which tied up work on the pier and rendered him liable to a penalty of two hundred dollars a day for delay in carrying out his individual contract. The jury was selected with great care, and was an intelligent, well-to-do body of men. Unfortunately for the prosecution, one of the witnesses called by it to sustain Plenty's charges became a witness for the defense, others had their testimony stricken out as incompetent, and still others were not put on the stand. The weakness of the prosecution led the friends of Parks to expect an acquittal, but the weakness of the defense finally convinced the jury of the truth of Plenty's charges. Parks not only pleaded not guilty, but declared that he had never met Plenty until the prosecution was begun, and his attorneys asserted that Plenty falsely claimed to have paid Parks the two hundred dollars in order to extort a hundred and fifty from the Hamburg Company as its share of the alleged cost of placating the union. An agent for the Hamburg Company, it appeared, did at one time pay Plenty the sum specified, though it was afterwards paid back. But, unfortunately for the defense, it conspicuously failed to put on the witness-stand the friend of Parks who was alleged by the prosecution to have turned over to him the money paid by Plenty, and also failed to put on the stand the servants alleged to have passed through the room where Plenty and Parks were conferring. The witnesses summoned by the defense were used chiefly to prove that Parks had not been accompanied by another officer of his union when conferring with Plenty, as the other officers named by Plenty had been in a conference with other men at the time named. The jury spent four hours considering the case before they were able to reach a verdict. The lawyers for the defense at once gave notice that the case would be appealed. Three other indictments are pending against Parks, and the prosecution asks for his immediate trial upon them. No one questions that many union officials have used their power to extort money from employers, and it is a great gain to the entire public to have these extortioners exposed and punished. The unions

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are the worst sufferers from this crime, because it is their interests that are betrayed by bribe-taking delegates, just as it is the public interests that are betrayed by bribe-taking councilmen and legislators. It is extremely unfortunate that in the case just tried the associates of the man found guilty are not yet convinced of his guilt. The prosecution of the other indictments ought fully to establish the character of the man indicted.

❀

Negro Business League in a Southern Capitol

On Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday of last week there was held in Nashville, Tennessee, the fourth annual session of the National Negro Business League. This organization is formed of colored men and women who are engaged in various lines of business—nearly every line, indeed, in which white men are engaged. It is doing good service to the white race as well as to the black. On the one hand, it is a summons bearing visible evidence of its own reasonableness to the poor and the ambitious of the negro race to make themselves useful members of society. As Dr. Booker Washington, who is President of the League, said in his annual address, "It is much wiser for us to emphasize opportunities than grievances. The world soon gets tired of the man or the race with a grievance. We must learn to be bigger than those who would insult us. . . . The race that can produce such an assembly [as this] of men and women after only forty years of freedom is one to be proud of. . . . The man who proves himself useful, no matter what his color, is the one who is going to succeed." On the other hand, this League is a revelation to the white race of what the negroes are capable of. Factory operatives, blacksmiths, hotel-keepers, pharmacists, bankers, gathering together and conferring on their various enterprises, form an unanswerable argument that the American negro is not unworthy of public confidence and respect. Unquestionably there are many Southern white people who need such ocular demonstration to be convinced of the negro's capability; but that Southern white people are glad to be convinced of this fact is evident from the way in which this League was entertained by the people of Nashville. The Hall of Representatives in the State Capitol was put at the League's disposal for its meetings. Trolley excursions were provided. Mayor-elect Williams made the address of welcome on behalf of Nashville, and the President of the Chamber of Commerce welcomed the negroes on behalf of the commercial life of the city. Women of the best white families attended the meetings, taking seats behind the rail. In spite of the many disheartening aspects of the relation between the white and black races, such a convention as this is full of reassurance as to the present and of promise for the future.

❀

Political News and Gossip

In Nebraska—one of the few politically interesting States that hold an election this year—the Republican Convention last week passed resolutions enthusiastically indorsing President Roosevelt for a second term, proclaiming present prosperity to be the result of Republican policies, eulogizing the protective tariff, condemning "combinations of capital having for their purpose the stifling of competition," and demanding such legislation as will enable American-built ships to carry America's foreign commerce. The word subsidy was not used in this last plank, but the subsidy policy was plainly indorsed. Mr. John L. Webster, an Omaha lawyer, was proposed by the Convention as President Roosevelt's associate on the ticket of 1904. In Ohio the contest between Mayor Johnson and John L. Zimmerman, the conservative candidate for the Democratic nomination for Governor, is proving closer than was expected, though the reports still indicate that Mayor Johnson is likely to control the Convention. In Missouri the popular demand that Mr. Folk, the successful prosecutor of the St. Louis and Jefferson City rings, shall be made the Democratic candidate for Governor is increasingly strong—particularly in the rural districts, where Mr. Folk's independent course has not stirred against him influential enemies. Mr. Folk has even been proposed in the "Commoner" as a possible Democratic candidate for the Presidency in 1904. For this last-named position, however, the present range of gossip knows no bounds, and the situation has recalled the epigram made upon the election of President Polk:

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"Henceforth no private citizen is safe." Several influential Southern Senators have united in indorsing Senator Gorman, of Maryland, but Mr. Bryan has promptly declared that this nomination would no more secure harmony than would that of Mr. Cleveland. It would, he says, eliminate from the campaign the tariff issue, the trust issue, the imperialism issue, and the currency issue, and leave nothing but the question, Who shall hold the offices? Mr. Gorman, he declares, would poll a million less votes than a Democratic ticket with no candidate at all.

❀

Mr. Hay and the Open Door

Last week the Chinese Minister at Washington conveyed to the State Department an official notification of China's purpose to open two ports in Manchuria on October 8. This is the date on which Russia has announced her intention of evacuating that country, "if circumstances permit." While most observers hold this phrase to be hardly other than meaningless, it is significant that the opening of the ports is put by China for the date of the supposed evacuation. It might be thought that China's consent to open the ports would constitute in Russian eyes a "circumstance" that would prevent evacuation, but Russia's consent has already been obtained by our State Department. It might also be thought that, on its part, China would make Russian evacuation a secret precedent for the opening of the ports. We hope that this fear is groundless, especially as the Chinese Minister, in an interview last week, defies any one "to name an instance when China violated her treaty obligations except in the guarantee of safety to foreigners." Whether Russia evacuates or not, if additional treaty ports are opened at our initiative, the benefit accruing both to China and to the world will be far greater than the mere amount of extra commerce involved—the benefit will be moral rather than commercial. So far, the American open-door policy as regards the Asiatic Pacific coast seems to promise ultimate success. We are glad to note that Mr. Hay's work in this matter is receiving commendation from the best papers, not only here but abroad. For instance, last week the London "Spectator" declared China's official notification to be the crowning proof of Secretary Hay's ability. He is "the most successful of living diplomats," declares the "Spectator." Considering his place among the world's statesmen, it notes certain qualities that have raised him to his present position:

> His ruling qualities are serenity, firmness, a high sense of honor as well as of public duty, and a wide knowledge of men and affairs, without a trace of the bully or blusterer in his composition. He is never awed, not merely by other men, a kind of courage which is not uncommon, but he is never awed by rumor, circumstance, or the creation of bogies of any kind.

The "Spectator" attributes Mr. Hay's calmness, self-possession, and quiet ability to his training as President Lincoln's secretary, and regrets that President Roosevelt, Mr. Hay, and others do not collect young men around them and train them in a similar manner for a few years as secretaries, since such training would be invaluable if in later years they were called to serve the State. We believe that the young men who have been serving our statesmen as secretaries have had precisely this training. Some of them—notably Secretary Cortelyou—now show its advantages in a more important station.

❀

The Macedonian Insurrection

Readers of press despatches should not put too great confidence in the despatches from Constantinople or from Sofia, the Bulgarian capital, concerning the events of the Macedonian insurrection. During the week, now from one source and then from the other, characteristically contradictory statements have come as to the massacres in the northern district of Uskub, as to the reign of terror in the Monastir district to the south, and as to the burning of villages in the district of Adrianople to the east. On one point, however, all despatches are agreed. The port of Iniada is a port of the last-named district. The Russian fleet sent to overawe the Turkish Government anchored there last week. It remained until the Sultan had acceded to all the peremptory and severe demands made by Russia relative to the punishment of the murderers of the Russian Consul at Monastir and of the officials, both civil and military, who were in power at the time. The Russian

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Government demanded, in addition, the appointment of European officers to the Turkish gendarmerie or police force. Having gained some reform in Turkey's internal affairs, the Russian ships returned to Sebastopol. The presence of the fleet, however, at Iniada for several days, gave encouragement to the insurgents, as the spread of the insurrection towards the east indubitably shows. It must be admitted that, with all his record of crime, the present position of the Sultan is a pitiable one. No matter how sincere he may be in his desire for peace and order within his empire, he has to deal, in the first place, with agents whom he cannot trust. He has not money enough to pay his soldiers regularly; and, though they have been accustomed outrageously to recoup themselves from the provinces, those in the region popularly known as Macedonia find the country devastated and are proportionately discontented. Moreover, the Sultan's own body-guard is composed of a large force of Albanians, and these, if the bravest, are among the most lawless of his subjects; a single untoward event on the border between Macedonia and Albania might be paid for by terrible vengeance at Constantinople. Again, while the Sultan has been able to keep the Bulgarian Government at bay because of the distance of insurrection from the border, it will be increasingly difficult for him, even aided by the Powers, longer to restrain the Bulgarians, for the fighting has within the past week approached dangerously near the frontier. Finally, there is always the Russian glacial movement, whether towards the Pacific, the Persian Gulf, or the Mediterranean, to be feared. Sometimes the movement is impressively unglacial, as was the case last week.

❀

The Native Christians of Turkey

According to last week's despatches, the Greek Christians in western Macedonia appear to have complicated matters unnecessarily for the Bulgarian Christians. Some rivalry between them has existed ever since Bulgaria began to be politically independent. Even as far back as 1870, eight years before the Treaty of Berlin erected Bulgaria into a principality, the Bulgarian Church, which had been part of the Greek Orthodox Church, became independent of the latter, causing considerable feeling. The Bulgarian Church is governed by a senate of bishops which, with the Sultan's approval, chooses an Exarch to reside at Constantinople and dispense patronage throughout the Empire. Perhaps the strongest bond between the Bulgarians and the Macedonians has been that of a common religion. Any possible present jealousy of the Greek Christians arises largely because they fear a Greater Bulgaria as a result of the insurrection against Turkey, and they discern no Greater Greece. If Macedonia is divided into two main divisions of native Christians, Armenia is divided into three. The Armenian Church was founded by Saint Gregory (died 322), hence the name Gregorian as applied to the Church which at the General Council of Chalcedon (451) refused to accept that Council's decisions. To the rest of the world the following centuries were dark ages, but there was a renaissance in Armenia both in literature and art. Historically Armenia was really the first Christian nation. It possesses a translation of the Bible dating from the fifth century, a work of marked literary worth. As for architecture, the Armenian churches still standing throughout the region of Van and as far as Ani in Russia show, in their slender pillars, noble arches, polygonal towers and domes, an impressive evidence of Byzantine art. In the fifteenth century the Armenian Church was split into two parts, the larger accepting papal supremacy. When, in 1870, the dogma of infallibility was promulgated, this majority faction again split and its minority affiliated with the Old Catholics. The Orthodox Armenian ecclesiastical head, the Katholikos, has as subordinates the Patriarchs of Constantinople and Jerusalem; he resides near Erivan, in Russian Armenia. The Roman Catholic Armenian Patriarch resides in Constantinople. The American Protestant missionaries in Macedonia and Armenia, we are glad to add, have always endeavored not to antagonize these various bodies of native Christians in Turkey, but to lead them to a larger liberty. That they may attain this liberty is a not impossible outcome of the present agitation in the East.

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The Humberts Convicted

An extraordinary ending to an extraordinary chapter of criminal conspiracy was reached in Paris last week. Mme. Humbert, at intervals during the trial which has been the reigning sensation of the summer, has declared her intention of solving to everybody's satisfaction the mystery of the Crawfords and their mythical millions, with the story of which our readers are familiar. Her counsel, Maître Labori, in his address darkly foreshadowed the impending revelation by saying, "Suppose the Crawfords bore a name so hateful to mention that it would scandalize your patriotism." This was explained when Mme. Humbert, in a dramatic and rhetorical address to the court, put forward the startling assertion that the elder Crawford, the original owner of the untold millions (which were to be but were not found in the safe sealed up by the courts while they gravely considered the sham lawsuits brought by the non-existent Crawford heirs), was no other than Regnier, the supposed intermediary between Marshal Bazaine and the Germans in the matter of the surrender of Metz, and the intimation was that the source of the money was a German bribe. Regnier was, it is said, condemned to death by a French court martial, but disappeared, and has been supposed to have died many years ago. As a stroke of monumental mendacity this "revelation" was sensational enough. It was joined to solemn assertions that the "Crawfords" exist, that the millions exist, and to the incoherent declaration, "Now you have the whole Crawford case and the whole Humbert case." Mme. Humbert's revelation certainly proved a sensation, and was thoroughly enjoyed by the Parisian multitude who have followed this astounding case with all the expectant excitement of an audience at a play. If there had been previously, however, any possibilities of an acquittal, the impudent audacity of the accused destroyed them. She made no attempt whatever to explain the connection between Regnier and the younger Crawfords, who by the two wills were rival suitors for her sister's hand. Neither did she tell where the great fortune is to-day. Her assertions were vague, incoherent, and inconclusive at every point. The time had long gone by when this remarkable woman could convince merely by the vastness of her schemes and her sheer bravado. The jury promptly found Mme. Humbert guilty, as also her husband and her brothers, Émile and Romain Daurignac. The Humberts were sentenced to five years' imprisonment, the others to two and three years.

❀

Automobile Restriction in Great Britain

The most noteworthy thing about the law for the regulation of motor vehicles passed by the British Parliament just before its close is that it does not content itself with specific limitations as to speed, nor, indeed, treat the question as if speed were the only matter for regulation, as have some of the State laws in this country. On the contrary, the British law in itself, and Lord Balfour in his exposition of its intent, brought to the front the sensible idea that drivers of automobiles on public roads must have regard for the nature and condition of the highway, the amount of traffic which is actually upon it at the time, the conduct of the horses actually near to the automobile, and all surrounding circumstances. The law defines recklessness, not only as proceeding at a speed above a given limit, but as acting in a manner dangerous to others, having regard to all the circumstances of the case. As to speed itself, the limit is placed at twenty miles, while the local authorities are given power to set the distance from the center of towns or cities within which motor-cars are to be confined to a speed of ten miles. Licenses are to be granted, recoverable by the courts for misconduct; no one under seventeen years of age may have a license; automobiles must be registered and carry numbers; fines ranging from twenty to fifty pounds may be imposed for violation of the law, and the magistrates have also the option of imposing imprisonment in case a conviction is not a first offense. This law appears to be based on reason and regard both for the rights of the traveling public and for the privileges to which lovers of this new form of sport and recreation may properly regard themselves as entitled. It is now pretty generally recognized that the automobile has come to stay, as the phrase goes, and that the law must regulate and not suppress it. Suppression has been tried in

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some limited localities. An amusing incident was lately told in a despatch from Switzerland, where one of the cantons has a law forbidding motor-cars to enter its limits. An American, not knowing of this law, reached the center of the canton before he was stopped, and was then surrounded by a large detachment of the police, who refused either to allow him to go on or to return. The case was finally compromised by his being allowed to walk beside his vehicle while it was escorted out of the canton. In a few towns in some of the New England States, we are informed, a similar attempt is being made to keep out motor-cars altogether. It is doubtful whether any such attempt will, in the long run, prove possible and desirable. The true remedy against recklessness and the true preventive of danger is a law so framed as to be possible of enforcement.

❀

A Volcanic Obelisk

An extremely singular phenomenon, one new to geologists who have studied volcanic eruptions, has taken place on Mont Pelée. Professor Angelo Heilprin, who, as readers of Mr. Kennan's articles in The Outlook will remember, was the first to ascend Pelée to its crater after the terrific explosions of last year, vividly describes in the "Youth's Companion" this peculiar formation as it appeared to him on a recent ascent, under the title "A 'Corked' Volcano." It seems that the lava pushed up constantly by volcanic force from the new crater has hardened before it emerged, so that instead of flowing it is continuously pushed into the air in the form of a rock or crag. This natural rock obelisk is now eight hundred feet in height (two and a half times the height of the Bartholdi Statue of Liberty's torch from the water), and at its base is over three hundred feet thick. It is, says Professor Heilprin, as if a cork were being pushed out from inside a bottle. The obelisk or crag is still rising; indeed, it rose twenty-one feet during the four days of Professor Heilprin's stay. Its base is fiery red from molten lava, and a light cloud of steam at the very top shows that there must be a channel or rift through the entire eight hundred feet of rock. Says the observer, "The grandest monuments erected by man are insignificant when compared with this monument of nature, placed where it looks over cities of the dead." From time to time parts of the rock break off and avalanches of the fragments fall into the valley, but still the monumental mass continues to mount silently and majestically. What the end of the phenomenon will be is an open question; it may fall over in a tremendous crash; it may cease to rise, and remain a strange and impressive memorial of a great tragedy.

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The International Yacht Races

The rather easy victory of the Reliance by nine minutes, actual time, over Shamrock III. on Saturday in a race sailed for the most part in a fresh breeze, taken with the American boat's apparent superiority in the previous attempt to race with merely a breath of air stirring, has led the yachting experts both in America and England to the conclusion that there is very slight doubt that the America's Cup—first won fifty-two years ago to a day before the Reliance's first victory—will remain on this side the water. When the official measurements of the yachts were made and published together, it was clear that the Reliance was not only the larger boat, but had more possibilities of motive power in proportion to her size, and could well afford to give even as large a time allowance as nearly two minutes. The race of Saturday was a fine one in many ways: the wind was from ten to fifteen knots from the southwest; the yachts were near enough each other to make the race exciting; the great fleet of steamboats and private yachts with thousands of onlookers behaved as they should in leaving the course clear; there was no dispute or unpleasant incident or mishap. That the following races may be as satisfactory was the wish of all interested. Sir Thomas Lipton is a prime favorite with the American public; he has shown good humor and good sense as well as persistence and sportsmanship. It has been said with truth that one of the most disagreeable consequences of our losing the Cup would be that we should no longer have our annual friendly visits from Sir Thomas.——An announcement of importance to lovers of yachts and yacht-racing is that there

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is a probability of a challenge for the America's Cup for next year from Canada, where a group of yacht-owners are raising a fund for the construction of a challenger. A novel suggestion is that the crew may be made up entirely of volunteer "gentleman sailors."

❀

A Question of Title

The Supreme Court, New York City (Justice McCall), lately issued an order enjoining any interference with the mural paintings executed by Mr. William de Leftwich Dodge at Toronto, Canada, until the case should have been passed upon. These paintings depict stirring scenes in Canadian history, and were placed in the new King Edward Hotel, Toronto. They were furnished by Mr. Dodge, acting under contract with a well-known decorating concern. The hotel authorities had already made a contract with the decorators, which, so it is reported, said that "the work should be satisfactory." Although Mr. Dodge's preliminary sketches had been approved, the architect of the hotel found the finished panels unsatisfactory, because the electric light was not strong enough properly to display them. Hence he ordered changes to be made so that the pictures would be lighter in tone, it being supposed by him that "title had passed" and that the artist had already parted with his control. Mr. Dodge refused to make the changes demanded, and, when told that they would then be made by another, offered to return the sum received in payment for his pictures, declining to have his work mutilated. Fearing that changes might be made anyway, he applied for an injunction restraining the architect and decorators of the hotel from altering the panels. So far as we know, this is the first case of the kind to come before an American court. The whole question seems to us one of the passing of title. If a contract has been made for mere decoration, which, of course, comes under the authority of the architect, the terms of the contract must be fulfilled, and the case is one under the general laws of bargain and sale. If, on the other hand, an artist of signal reputation is employed to paint a picture, signed by his own name, any changes made by others in the picture, disapproved by the original artist, would seem to be so many forgeries. There is an analogy between changes proposed to be made in his signed painting and those which might be made by the publishers of a signed poem.

❀

Lord Salisbury

On Saturday night of last week, in an old-fashioned room at Hatfield House, there passed away an old-fashioned man. The room overlooks a garden where, three and a half centuries ago, Elizabeth first heard that she was Queen of England. Her great Minister, Burleigh, was the ancestor of the statesman who died last week. The careers of these two Ministers were marked by certain common characteristics due first to the men themselves and next to their times—aristocracy, independence, imperialism. For, in our opinion, the two notable periods for English expansion are the Elizabethan and the Victorian.

The personal career of the Marquis of Salisbury was as interesting as was his political career. More than any one of our day, he showed that the great aristocratic houses of England are still producing statesmen. Yet he was perhaps the last of the old-time Tory nobles to rule England.

Independent he always was, personally and politically. In early life, as Lord Robert Cecil, a younger son, and not expecting to succeed to the marquisate, he supported himself by writing for the "Standard," the "Saturday Review," and the London "Quarterly." As biography, an account of this period is more inspiring reading than the description of his later years and honors. The most important event of his life flatly defied Cecil traditions. Even here he could be independent of his family. But Lady Salisbury, supposed to be beneath her husband socially, was quite his equal. Their married life was one of exemplary purity, privacy, and beauty; and when the Marchioness died recently, Lord Salisbury's friends knew whereof they spoke in prophesying that he would not remain long in active politics, but would seek distraction in the pursuit which absorbed him even more—chemical research. Lord Salisbury was also personally independent of those about him. Walking to and

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from his house in Arlington Street, you might see the stout, full-faced, stoop-shouldered man pay no more attention to the passers-by than to his decidedly shabby-looking clothes. Not only did he keep himself aloof from the public, but even from those of his own Cabinet; with both he used, on occasion, an exasperatingly "cross country" manner.

Politically, Lord Salisbury's career was distinguished by an independence which, in our opinion, was generally admirable. His addresses never carried with them the magnetism which attached to Gladstone's, for instance. Not for felicity in language, for eloquence in delivery, or for resultant thrill among auditors, were the Salisbury speeches notable. The speaker probably realized this himself. He doggedly went to the other extreme. Whether from pride of station or from contempt for mere rhetoric, his bent towards satire and sarcasm was accentuated. Most of the Cecils have been statesmen and Cabinet officers: it has seemed to us sometimes, in reading Lord Salisbury's earlier speeches, as if an intransigent Tudor or Stuart representative of the family had suddenly come to life in a new age—and did not like it. Yet, unconciliatory as Lord Salisbury's temper might be, he always commanded respect even from those whom he irritated most. In him they recognized both intellect and character. His independent course was not demagogical. He never "played to the galleries;" he carried on the ancestral tradition worthily. It has been a strange fashion in some quarters to call Lord Salisbury an opportunist, and to quote Bismarck's bitter characterization of him, "A lath painted to look like iron." But Lord Salisbury could display firmness to match any man's. At least he had the advantage of Bismarck, who, after showing tremendous obstinacy, did after all go to Canossa, being gently led thither by the greatest diplomat of his time, the late Pope. Lord Salisbury was no opportunist. We are convinced that he always aimed to be true to his convictions. If he must fail, he failed; he did not compromise. As long ago as 1868 he resigned his place in the Government rather than betray what he held to be a constitutional principle. In our opinion, his was then a bigoted Tory exclusiveness miscalled principle, but at least we may honor his conscientiousness. This quality may be noted all through his career. Only quite recently he gave a signal example of it, taking the very moment when British blood was "up" to deliver a seemingly cold-blooded and ironical speech. Even some of his own party adherents called him a cynic, but in this, we are sure, they went beyond the mark. He simply felt it his duty to speak; he spoke his mind fearlessly; the knowledge that his words were pessimistic and would not be popular moved him not a whit.

Though in appearance of the John Bull type, and in adding to and maintaining the British Empire the typical imperialist, Lord Salisbury's words were—especially in the latter half of his life—markedly unjingoish, unbellicose. In them you could see the real man, an aristocrat in the best sense, simple, sincere, actuated by an overwhelming sense of public duty, the upholder of the nation's dignity, but also and in especial of the world's peace. No one's influence for peace meant more. Even when he referred impressively to "decadent nations," there was no fear that he was going to take advantage of them, nor when he indulged in his annual jeremiads on the occasion of the Lord Mayor's dinner—addresses which came almost with the authority of the sovereign's speech opening Parliament. Every one felt that at the base with him there was a vast melancholy and sadness, quite the opposite pole from the war-making spirit—as if he knew that the times were out of joint and he the last of his kind! He must have despised the Crimean War, and we fancy that the Boer War was hardly of his seeking. In that, as in all the rest of the making of the British Empire, the exclusive aristocrat had a truer conception of real progress than has Mr. Chamberlain, the "pushful" democrat to whom the Premier gave a place in the coalition Cabinet of 1895.

In Lord Salisbury's foreign policy we recognize both failures and successes, but the latter far outweigh the former. He was in public life during the half-century between the Crimean and Boer wars, but he influenced the foreign affairs of Europe at first hand during the twenty-five years in which he was three times Prime Minister and four times Foreign Minister. He was the last of that great quartette of

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Foreign Ministers—Bismarck, Gortschakoff, Andrassy, Salisbury.

Queen Victoria was repeatedly served by Mr. Gladstone on the Liberal side as First Minister of the Crown, but she was served, we believe, more acceptably by Lord Salisbury on the Conservative side. Indeed, even from the Liberal standpoint, we are not sure but that, in their own estimation, the English people, as a whole, were more acceptably served by the Marquis of Salisbury than by any recent statesman. Haughtily independent and aristocratic as he was, they recognized in him an equal sincerity and integrity with Mr. Gladstone's, a greater simplicity and far-seeing wisdom, and certainly a more popular because a more progressive imperialism.

In the old days the nobles ruled; in ours the people rule. Yet nobles may still exercise enduring influence, particularly if, as in Lord Salisbury's case, they are noble nobles.

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The Congo Slave State

A cable despatch from Brussels last week ran as follows:

> The British Minister has notified the Belgian Government that Great Britain formally objects to the granting of monopolies, the employment of forced labor, and other features in the administration of the Congo Free State.

It is certainly to be hoped that the despatch accurately reflects the tone as well as the substance of the protest presented by the British Minister. The recent action of the Belgian Congress—with only a few Socialist deputies dissenting—approving of the administration of the King in the Congo Free State shows that the reform of abuses there is not likely to proceed from the foreign nation directly in control. It must come from the outside pressure exerted by the other Powers which eighteen years ago at Berlin intrusted the King of the Belgians with the rule of the Congo State.

Of the character of the Belgian administration, as reported by Protestant missionaries, foreign travelers, and even ex-officials of the Congo bureaucracy, The Outlook has made frequent mention. Recently the whole case has been presented in a hundred-page pamphlet by Edmund D. Morel, whose volume entitled "Affairs in West Africa" has proved one of the strongest influences in bringing Congo oppression to the attention of the liberty-loving world. This pamphlet is certain to quicken public feeling everywhere, and aid in making the protest just filed by the British Government an insistent demand on the part of all nations concerned in the promotion of human justice.

The policy of the Belgian administration, as shown by Mr. Morel, has been to turn almost the entire territory of the Congo State over to a group of industrial monopolies which, supported by the army, carry on their "trade" by means of a merciless system of forced labor—the wages of the natives and the prices of their products being fixed by the commercial corporations in control. Nominally, it was only the "vacant land" of the territory which was parceled out to these trusts, but as all land not actually built upon or cultivated was declared vacant, virtually all the natural resources of a country with nearly twenty millions of people were turned over to the foreign syndicates. In these syndicates the Belgian Government generally subscribed for a half interest—the partnership between the Government and the trusts serving the double purpose of bringing commercial interests in Belgium to the support of the Government's foreign policy, and at the same time enabling the Government to profit financially from its trusteeship while reporting to the rest of Europe that its receipts from taxes in the Congo hardly met the cost of administration. It is through the operation of these commercial syndicates that the real taxation of the natives is exacted.

The methods of a single trust will serve to indicate the methods of them all. We select the Mongalla trust, the description of which is largely taken from a statement by an American citizen, Mr. Edgar Canisius, who was formerly one of the trust officials. The Mongalla trust is an Antwerp society, with a capital of only 3,400 shares ($340,000), yet controlling a territory as large as New Jersey. One-half of the shares belong to the Congo State. The profits during the last five years have aggregated $1,600,000—or nearly five hundred per cent. upon the capital sub-

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scribed. During these five years the scandals from the trust's administration have led to stirring debates in the Belgian Chamber of Representatives, followed by the punishment of a few minor officials, while the responsible men whose wishes were the real law to their subordinates went scot-free. The principal business of the Mongalla trust, as indeed of all the others, was the collection of rubber and ivory, which are practically the only exportable products of the country, now that slave labor can no longer be exported. As both rubber and ivory are produced on land neither occupied nor tilled, they both belong to the monopolies to which the "vacant" land is ceded. The collection of rubber by the Mongalla trust at a trading-post established among a submissive tribe—the Gombés—is described by Mr. Canisius as follows:

> Once in a fortnight these Gombés were obliged to bring rubber to the post. Each of the villages was under the surveillance of a "capita" or headman, sent by the post manager, whose duty it was to see that the natives gathered the rubber in time, and in proper quantity.
>
> At the time appointed, the post manager notified the "capitas" to bring in the rubber gathered by the villagers under their control, and in due course they arrived at the station, each man carrying a small basket made of rattan, furnished by the white agent, in order that no native could make a mistake as to the quantity he must furnish.
>
> When all the villagers had arrived at the station, they took up their positions in rows, and the post manager then settled down to business, assisted by the Company's "soldiers," a number of whom were stationed at every post. Each villager was in turn ranged up before him, every man with his basket before him. Each native wore, attached to a cord around his neck, a small disc made of the zinc lining of packing-cases. These discs each had a number stamped upon it, and in a book which the manager had before him were inscribed the names of the natives against the number upon their "tags." One by one, the half-frightened bushmen were called up and made to present their baskets to the white man, a proceeding frequently assisted by a cuff from one of the soldiers. If the quantity of rubber was satisfactory, the native—who had worked many days to produce it—was paid what the agent thought the proper amount in "mitakos," pieces of brass wire, six to eight inches long. If, on the other hand, a native had only a small quantity of rubber in his basket, he was taken aside by one of the soldiers, and, after all had been called up, was severely castigated with the fearful whip made of hippopotamus-hide.
>
> When all the villagers had deposited their quotas of rubber, the manager had a thousand pounds, or more, which I estimated cost him at the rate of about one penny per pound. As this rubber was worth over three shillings per pound in the Antwerp market, it is safe to assume that the Company made a very considerable profit on it, even after paying heavy transport charges and a high export tax.

These statements regarding the nature of the "trade" forced upon the natives by the representatives of higher civilization seem almost incredible until we find them practically confirmed by the official reports of the Belgian Government regarding the value of the exports and imports of the Congo State. These run as follows:

Exports.. $10,000,000 Imports.. $3,600,000

In other words, the natives send abroad ten million dollars' worth of products, for which they receive in return at most three millions and a half. In reality they receive much less, for more than half of the imports consist of arms and ammunition, provisions and liquor, plainly designed for the soldiers and officials of the Belgian Government and syndicates. The supplies intended for the natives appear to be worth hardly one-fifth as much as the rubber and ivory they return!

This, then, is the course of trade where the natives have submitted to the new régime. Where they have not submitted, the outrages perpetrated upon them are often almost indescribable. A missionary, for instance, tells of regiments of cannibal soldiery being despatched into unsubmissive districts, with orders to bring back a hand for every cartridge fired—the troops often bringing back the hands of living women and children in order to comply with the requirements of their civilized commanders. Other missionaries, whose statements seem to be carefully guarded, tell of villages from which the women flee into the woods at the approach of the soldiers, and tell of Government victories which are carnivals of arson, murder, and rape. Outrages of this character must be exceptional, but Mr. Morel's narrative proves that, while the Belgian officials doubtless try to prevent savagery, the terrorism they seek to establish by the methods of civilization is hardly less cruel. The whole narrative recalls the horrors of the slave trade, and the fact that King Leopold has been proclaiming before the world that his "only

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programme" was "the work of moral and material regeneration" only makes the régime the more revolting. The conscience of the world will condemn it, and under this condemnation it will be destroyed.

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Who Will Guard the Guards?

Men have been sent to Indian Territory to protect the Indians. Some of them are under the Indian Department, others belong to the Dawes Commission. When the old pernicious reservation system, by which the Indians were isolated from civilization and kept in barbarism, was abandoned, and the policy of allotting lands in severalty to the Indians, by which these dependent people were given a chance to make progress, was adopted, a long step was taken toward decent dealings between white and red men. It then became the duty of Indian agents, and in particular of members of the Dawes Commission, to see to it that the change should be made fairly and honestly. The Indians themselves, untrained in business methods and unacquainted with the value of their possessions, were incapable of looking out for their own rights. This fact gave opportunity for speculators and promoters to obtain possession of land by inducing Indians to part with it, either by lease or sale, at ridiculously low figures. It is true that the law affecting the change made apparently ample provision against oppression; but since the Indians were not able to enforce the law themselves, officials of the Federal Government were designated to enforce it. It is now charged that some of these officers, guardians of a helpless people, have taken advantage of their authority to become speculators and promoters themselves.

This condition has been made known by a representative of the Indian Rights Association, Mr. S. N. Brosius, who has been on the ground studying the administration of the law for a year. He reports other evils as well as this betrayal of trust. The method of allotting land is so technical and complicated that it requires of every Indian a considerable journey to Tahlequah and a long wait there to file his application, involving expense and absence from home which the Indian cannot afford. Mr. Brosius has calculated that, under the method now in vogue, the work of the Commission in allotting the lands will not be completed for more than thirty years! But such an evil as this, outrageous as it is, does not compare with that of commending the Indians to the protection of men who have entered upon the business of obtaining possession of the Indians' lands. According to Mr. Brosius's report, the Chairman of the Dawes Commission, Tams Bixby by name, is stockholder and vice-president of one real estate company, and stockholder and president of another; Thomas B. Needles, another member of the Commission, is a director and vice-president of a third company; P. L. Soper, United States District Attorney for the northern district of Indian Territory, whose business it is to prosecute persons having excessive holdings of land, and to defend Indians in all suits involving titles to lands, is a stockholder in a fourth company; J. G. Wright, Indian inspector in charge of Indian Territory, is a director of one of these companies. So the list might be extended. It is such companies as these, Mr. Brosius declares, that are leasing lands from the Indians at twenty-five to seventy-five cents an acre, and then subletting them at from one to two and a half dollars an acre. Similar companies organized to control oil and gas lands are doing the same sort of business. For example, Mr. Brosius says:

> In a case recently reported to the Indian Office by the writer, protest was made against the approval of a lease covering the homestead rights of a mother and two minor children. The Indian mother, being ignorant of values, was induced to give up the lands that had been in possession of the family for many years upon being paid $900 each for the three tracts, while the person obtaining the same received $20,000 from the oil company for his share of the profits.

Such a report as this demands investigation. Clear and specific allegations such as are made by Mr. Brosius cannot, and we believe will not, be ignored. We are glad to say that Commissioner Jones, of the Indian Department, takes this view. The alleged evil is of such scope, however, that investigation ought to be directed by the Department of the Interior, or, better, by the President who need not limit the investigation to any one Depart-

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ment. We hope the announcement is true, which was made last week, that such an investigation is contemplated.

Commissioner Jones, of the Indian Department, is quoted as saying that he thought it was extremely bad taste for officials to allow themselves to be connected with these companies. It certainly is—the same bad taste that is displayed when a man cheats his washerwoman. The man who profits by the driving of hard bargains with people who are not only helpless but dependent upon him and under his care ought to have his taste improved.

The United States has treated the Indian with vast generosity in granting him privileges and making of him a pauper. The Nation should not now turn back from its undertaking to make a man of him by no longer being niggardly in according him his rights. Fortunately, in this case there is no question as to what the first rights of the Indians are: that these charges be investigated, and, if proved true, that the Indians be protected against their protectors.

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Making Opportunities

It cannot be too often said to men and women of all ages, nor with too ample illustration, that opportunities are never to be waited for and that they come unawares. Great things are gained by intelligent and patient waiting; but the man who stands beside the highway of life waiting, not for something which he is prepared to receive, but for something which accident may throw in his way, will never be overtaken by Fortune. When Fortune comes his way she will pass without any recognition from him. It sometimes seems as if life were a great game, and as if the invisible player against whom all men and women are matched delighted in perplexing and confusing his opponents. As a matter of fact, life is so saturated with the moral quality that every step brings us face to face with a new test. The great things are for the most part so humbly garbed that, unless we penetrate their disguise, we do not recognize them until they have passed and are a long way off, when we discern their majesty. In Emerson's poem "The Days" are represented as appearing with empty hands and in the humblest dress; but if a man fails to recognize them, he sees, after they have passed, that they are queens in disguise and that their hands are full of the choicest gifts.

The difference between men and women lies largely in the ability or the lack of ability to penetrate the disguise of the opportunity and detect its true nature. As a rule, the great opportunities on which success turns come in unexpected moments and ways; and the great majority of men who have attained marked success, as they look back, see clearly that they passed the turning-points in their career when they were quite unaware that they were on critical ground. No one ever knows when his opportunity will come; no one ever knows when the decisive moment of his life will arrive. The great crises are often like a bolt out of the blue of a summer day; there is not a moment for preparation. In such crises all that a man has been doing in the way of preparation suddenly bears its fruit. He often acts instinctively; he does that which he is in the habit of doing; and, because he is in the habit of doing his best and all his instincts prompt him to put forth the best that is in him, he seizes the golden moment and does not discover until long afterwards that it was golden. He meets his great crises with clear intelligence and a resolute will, and passes it successfully before he is aware that it is upon him.

Opportunities are created by the development of the power which deals with them, and they come to men and women, as a rule, in exact proportion to the ability to recognize and handle them. There are of course vast differences of condition and ability between men, but opportunities come to all. The difference lies in the ability to seize the right moment and make effective use of what is thrown in one's path. Successful careers often read like romances, so full do they seem of the chances of life, so purely accidental appear to be, at the first glance, the openings of the gates of success. It is true that Malibran happened to pass under the window of the house when the young violinist, Ole Bull, was practicing, and that apparent accident gave the brilliant young

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violinist the great opportunity for which he longed; but Malibran would not have paused, nor would Ole Bull have been sent for, if the notes of the violin had not, by their compelling beauty and power, arrested her attention and made the fortune of the player. It was not Malibran who gave Ole Bull his chance; it was his own magical skill. Malibran furnished the opportunity, but the opportunity would have come in some other way if the famous singer had not passed under the window of the violinist. Men and women who could help us are always passing under our windows, but if there is nothing in us which lays a spell upon them, they do not know that they have passed our way and we are never aware of it. The streets are thronged with those who could open the doors, and the houses they pass are full of men and women who long to have the doors opened; but it is only the man or woman of skill, power, training, and discipline who can arrest the attention and command the chance. The way to secure opportunity is to walk resolutely on the pathway along which opportunity comes. He who waits wastes his life. He who takes his fate in his hand and goes forward, sooner or later finds the time of his deliverance and the place of his achievement.

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Am I My Brother's Keeper?

You have a friend for whom you feel a burden of responsibility. You are regular at church; he has ceased attendance. You are a devout believer; he has lost or is losing his faith in the Bible, in God, in immortality. You are a total abstainer; he is already a moderate drinker, perhaps verging toward the immoderate drinker. There are special reasons why you feel a sense of responsibility for him. He is an old friend; an old pupil; the son of an old friend; your own son. What shall you do for him? What can you do?

There are two things you can do.

First, remember that he is his own master. His will is free. The God you believe in made his will free. No man can be steered by another. If he is insane, society puts him under the control of another for his own protection; if criminal, it puts him under control for the sake of others; while he is yet a child he is under control of his parents. But when he has come to manhood, he is put under his own control. He has the same right to stay away from church that you have to go; to drink wine that you have to abstain from wine; to disbelieve that you have to believe. You are a Protestant; would you not resent the claim of your neighbor to dragoon you into attendance on a Roman Catholic church? You eat meat; would you not resent your vegetarian neighbor if she lectured you on the sin of meat-eating?

Do not misunderstand us. We do not doubt that it would be better for your friend to abstain from wine-drinking and to cultivate the habit of church-going. But what he shall eat and drink and how he shall spend his Sundays are questions he is to decide for himself; you are not to decide them for him. Do not hector him; do not lecture him; do not, in your own mind, assume responsibility for him. Do not imagine that you are your brother's keeper. If you think the Bible makes you so, read again the story of Cain and Abel, and see if it justifies the conclusion which has sometimes been deduced from it.

Is there nothing you can do, then? Yes! Something. Stevenson has said—we quote from memory and not with exactitude: There is one person whom it is my duty to make good, that is myself. My duty towards others is better expressed by saying, Make them happy. You go to church. Get happiness out of it; come back from church, not to look rebuke at others because they did not go, but with a sunny face, happy yourself and better fitted to make them happy. Live your own life so joyously that your friend will envy you, but do not live it for the purpose of making him envy you. The fruit of the Spirit is love, joy, peace, long-suffering, gentleness, goodness, faith, meekness, temperance. All men like these fruits. If your orchard is full of these, your friend will wish that he had an orchard like it. Do not preach; simply practice. And always remember that God has seen fit to make him the master of his own life, and any wish on your part to become the master of his life and bend it into conformity with your liking and your conscience would be a wish to violate the divine order.

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Lord Salisbury[1]

By Justin McCarthy

THE retirement of Lord Salisbury from the position of Prime Minister and the leadership of the Conservative Government withdrew into comparative obscurity the most interesting and even picturesque figure in the English Parliamentary life of the present day. Even the most uncompromising opponents of the Prime Minister and of his political party felt a sincere respect for the character, the intellect, and the bearing of the man himself. Every one gave Lord Salisbury full credit for absolute sincerity of purpose, for superiority to any personal ambitions or mere self-seeking, for an almost contemptuous disregard of State honors and political fame.

Yet it was not that Lord Salisbury was habitually careful and measured in his speech, that he was never hurried into rash utterances, that he was guided by any particular anxiety to avoid offending the susceptibilities of others, or, indeed, that, as a rule, he preferred to use soothing words in political controversy. He had, on the contrary, a marvelous gift of sarcasm and of satirical phrase-making, and he was only too ready to indulge occasionally this peculiar capacity at the expense of political friend as well as of political foe. In his early days of public life, when he sat in the House of Commons as a nominal follower of Mr. Disraeli, he was once described in debate by his nominal leader as "a master of flouts and jeers." On another occasion Disraeli spoke of him, although not in Parliamentary debate, as a young man whose head was on fire. In later days, and even when he had held high administrative office, Lord Salisbury often indulged in sudden outbursts of contemptuous humor which for a time seemed likely to provoke indignant remonstrance even from his own followers. . . . The truth is that Lord Salisbury's odd humor is a peculiarity without which he could not be the complete Lord Salisbury, and an unlucky expression was easily forgiven because of the many brilliant flashes of genuine and not unfair sarcasm with which he was accustomed to illumine a dull debate. When he succeeded to his father's title, and had, therefore, to leave the House of Commons and take his place in the House of Lords, every one felt that the representative chamber had lost one of its most attractive figures, and that the hereditary chamber was not exactly the place in which such a man could find his happiest hunting-ground. Yet even in the somber and unimpressive House of Lords, Lord Salisbury was able, whenever the humor took him, to brighten the debates by his apt illustrations and his witty humor. . . .

We may take it for granted that Lord Salisbury had been for a long time growing tired of the exalted political position which had of late become uncongenial with his habits and his frame of mind. By the death of his wife he had lost the most loved companion of his home, his intellectual tastes, and his political career. A pair more thoroughly devoted to each other than Lord and Lady Salisbury could hardly have been found even in the pages of romance. The whole story of that marriage and that married life would have supplied a touching and a telling chapter for romance. Early in his public career Lord Salisbury fell in love with a charming, gifted, and devoted woman, whom a happy chance had brought in his way. She was the daughter of an eminent English judge, the late Baron Alderson, and although such a wife might have been thought a suitable match even for a great aristocrat, it appears that the Lord Salisbury of that time, the father of the late Prime Minister, who was then only Lord Robert Cecil, did not approve of the marriage, and the young pair had to take their own way and become husband and wife without regard for the family prejudices. Lord Robert Cecil was then only a younger brother with a younger brother's allowance to live on, and the newly wedded pair had not much of a prospect before

[1] The article which is here in part reprinted first appeared in The Outlook for September 6, 1902, and is included in Mr. McCarthy's book, "British Political Portraits," published by the Outlook Company.

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them, in the conventional sense of the words. Lord Robert Cecil accepted the situation with characteristic courage and resolve. There seemed at that time no likelihood of his ever succeeding to the title and the estates, for his elder brother was living, and was, of course, heir to the ancestral title and property. Lord Robert Cecil had been gifted with distinct literary capacity, and he set himself down to work as a writer and a journalist. He became a regular contributor to the "Saturday Review," then at the height of its influence and fame, and he wrote articles for some of the ponderous quarterly reviews of the time, brightening their pages by his animated and forcible style. He took a small house in a modest quarter of London, where artists and poets and authors of all kinds usually made a home, far removed from West End fashion and courtly splendor, and there he lived a happy and productive life for many years. He had obtained a seat in the House of Commons as a member of the Conservative party, but he never pledged himself to support every policy and every measure undertaken by the Conservative leaders, whether they happened to be in or out of office. Lord Robert always acted as an independent member, although he adhered conscientiously to the cardinal principles of that Conservative doctrine which was his political faith throughout his life. He soon won for himself a marked distinction in the House of Commons. He was always a brilliant speaker, but was thoughtful and statesmanlike as well as brilliant. He never became an orator in the higher sense of the word. He never attempted any flights of exalted eloquence. His speeches were like the utterances of a man who is thinking aloud and whose principal object is to hold and convince his listeners by the sheer force of argument set forth in clear and telling language. Many of his happy phrases found acceptance as part of the ordinary language of political and social life and became in their way immortal. Up to the present day men are continually quoting happy phrases drawn from Lord Robert Cecil's early speeches without remembering the source from which they came.

Such a capacity as that of Lord Robert Cecil could not long be overlooked by the leaders of his party, and it soon became quite clear that he must be invited to administrative office. I ought to say that, after Lord Robert had completed his collegiate studies at Oxford, he devoted himself for a considerable time to an extensive course of travel, and he visited Australasia, then but little known to young Englishmen of his rank, and he actually did much practical work as a digger in the Australian gold-mines then newly discovered. He had always a deep interest in foreign affairs, and it was greatly to the advantage of his subsequent career that he could often support his arguments on questions of foreign policy by experience drawn from a personal study of the countries and States forming successive subjects of debate. Suddenly his worldly prospects underwent a complete change. The death of his elder brother made him heir to the family title and the great estates. He became Viscount Cranborne in succession to his dead brother.

In 1866 Lord Cranborne entered office, for the first time, as Secretary of State for India during the administration of Lord Derby. The year following brought about a sort of crisis in Lord Cranborne's political career, and probably showed the general public of England, for the first time, what manner of man he really was. Up to that period he had been regarded by most persons, even among those who habitually gave attention to Parliamentary affairs, as a brilliant, independent, and somewhat audacious free-lance whose political conduct was usually directed by the impulse of the moment, and who made no pretension to any fixed and ruling principles. That was the year 1867, when the Conservative Government under Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli took it into their heads to try the novel experiment, for a Conservative party, of introducing a Reform Bill to improve and expand the conditions of the Parliamentary suffrage. Disraeli was the author of this new scheme, and it had been suggested to him by Mr. Gladstone's failure in the previous year with his measure of reform. Gladstone's reform measure did not go far enough to satisfy the genuine Radicals, while it went much too far for a considerable number of doubtful and half-hearted Liberals, and it was strongly opposed by the whole Tory party. As usually happens in the case of every reform introduced by a Liberal ad-

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ministration, a secession took place among the habitual followers of the Government. The secession in this case was made famous by the name which Bright conferred upon it as the " Cave of Adullam " party; and, by the co-operation of the seceding section with the Tory Opposition, the measure was defeated, and Mr. Gladstone went out of office. Disraeli saw, with his usual sagacity, that the vast mass of the population were in favor of some measure of reform, and when Lord Derby and he came into office he made up his mind that, as the thing had to be done, he and his colleagues might as well have the advantage of doing it. The outlines of the measure prepared for the purpose only shaped a very vague and moderate scheme of reform, but Disraeli was quite determined to accept any manner of compromises in order to carry some sort of scheme and to keep himself and his party in power. But then arose a new difficulty on which, with all his sagacity, he had not calculated. Lord Cranborne for the first time showed that he was a man of clear and resolute political principle, and that he was not willing to sacrifice any of his conscientious convictions for the sake of maintaining his place in a Government. He was sincerely opposed to every project for making the suffrage popular and for admitting the mass of the workingmen of the country to any share in its government. Lord Cranborne was then only at the opening of his administrative career, and he must have had personal ambition enough to make him wish for a continuance of office in a powerful administration. But he put all personal considerations resolutely aside, and resigned his place in the Government rather than have anything to do with a project which he believed to be a surrender of constitutional principle to the demands of the growing democracy. Lord Carnarvon and one or two other members of the administration followed his lead and resigned their places in the Government. I need not enter into much detail as to the progress of the Disraeli reform measure. It is enough to say that Disraeli obtained the support of many Radicals by the Liberal amendments which he accepted, and the result was that a Tory Government carried to success a scheme of reform which practically amounted to the introduction of household suffrage. Lord Cranborne and those who acted with him held firmly to their principles, and steadily opposed the measure introduced by those who at the opening of the session were their official leaders and colleagues. I am convinced that even the most advanced reformers were ready to give a due meed of praise to the man who had thus made it evident that he preferred what he believed to be a political principle, even though he knew it to be the principle of a losing cause, to any consideration of personal advancement.

Some of us felt sure that we had then learned for the first time what manner of man Lord Cranborne really was. We had taken him for a bold and brilliant adventurer, and we found and were ready to acknowledge that he was a man of deep, sincere, and self-sacrificing convictions. I have never from that time changed my opinions with regard to Lord Cranborne's personal character. His career interested me from the first moment that I had an opportunity of observing it, and I may say that from an early period of my manhood I had much opportunity of studying the ways and the figures of Parliamentary life. But until Lord Cranborne had taken this resolute position on the reform question I had never given him credit for any depth of political convictions. The impression I formed of him up to that time was that he was merely a younger son of a great aristocratic family, who had a natural aptitude alike for literature and for politics, and that he was following in Parliament the guidance of his own personal humors and argumentative impulses, and that he was ready to sacrifice in debate not only his friends but his party for the sake of saying a clever thing and startling his audience into reluctant admiration. From those days of 1867 I knew him to be what the world all now knows him to be, a man of deep and sincere convictions, ever following the light of what he believed to be political wisdom and justice. I can say this none the less readily because I suppose it has hardly ever been my fortune to agree with any of Lord Salisbury's utterances on questions of political importance.

In 1868 the career of Lord Cranborne in the House of Commons came to an end by the death of his father. He succeeded to the title of Marquis of Salisbury, and became, as a matter of course, a member of

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the House of Lords. He was thus withdrawn while still a comparatively young man from that stirring field of splendid debate where his highest qualities as a speaker could alone have found their fitting opportunity. I need not trace out his subsequent public career with any sequence of detail. We all know how from that time to this he has held high office, has come to hold the highest offices in the State whenever his political party happened to be in power. He has been Foreign Secretary; he has been Prime Minister in three Conservative administrations. For a time he actually combined the functions of Prime Minister and those of Foreign Secretary. He was envoy to the great conference at Constantinople in 1876 and 1877, and he took part in the Congress of Berlin, that conference which Lord Beaconsfield declared brought to England peace with honor. Everything that a man could have to gratify his ambition Lord Salisbury has had since the day when he succeeded to his father's title and estates. His own intellectual force and his political capacity must undoubtedly have made a way for him to Parliamentary influence and success even if he had always remained Lord Robert Cecil, and his elder brother had lived to succeed to the title. But from the moment when Lord Robert Cecil became the heir, it was certain that his party could not venture to overlook him. He might have made eccentric speeches, he might have indulged in sarcastic and scornful allusions to his political leaders, he might have allowed obtrusive scruples of conscience to interfere with the interests of his party, but none the less it became absolutely necessary that the Conservative politicians should accept, when opportunity came, the leadership of the Marquis of Salisbury.

Lord Salisbury certainly did not achieve his position by any of the arts, even the less culpable arts, which for a time secured to Macbeth the highest reach of his ambition. Lord Salisbury's leadership came to him and was not sought by him. I cannot help thinking, however, that, after he had once attained that supreme position in his party, the remainder of his public career has been something in the nature of an anticlimax. Was it that the chill and deadening influence of the House of Lords proved too depressing for the energetic and vivacious spirit which had won celebrity for Lord Robert Cecil in the House of Commons? Was it that Lord Salisbury, when he had attained the height of his ambition, became a victim to that mood of reaction which compels such a man to ask himself whether, after all, the work of ascent was not much better than the attained elevation? Lord Salisbury's years of high office coming now thus suddenly to an end give to me at least the melancholy impression of an unfulfilled career. The influence of the Prime Minister, so far as mere outsiders can judge of it, has always been exerted in foreign affairs for the promotion of peace. Even the late war in South Africa is not understood to have been in any sense a war of his seeking. The general belief is that the policy of war was pressed upon him by influences which at the time he was not able to control—influences which would only have become all the stronger if he had refused to accept the responsibility of Prime Minister and had left it to others to carry on the work of government. However this may be, it can hardly be questioned that of late years Lord Salisbury had become that which nobody in former days could ever suppose him likely to become, the mere figurehead of an administration. Lord Salisbury's whole nature appears to have been too sincere, too free from mere theatrical arts, to allow him to play the part of leader where he had no heart in the work of leadership. A statesman like Disraeli might have disapproved of a certain policy and done his best to reason his colleagues out of it, but nevertheless, when he found himself likely to be overborne, would have immersed himself deliberately in all the new-born zeal of the convert and would have behaved thenceforward as if his whole soul were in the work which had been put upon him to do. Lord Salisbury is most assuredly not a man of this order, and he never would or could put on an enthusiasm which he did not feel in his heart. We can all remember how, at the very zenith of British passion against China during the recent political convulsions and the intervention of the foreign allies, Lord Salisbury astonished and depressed some of

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his warmest admirers by a speech which he made at Exeter Hall, a speech which, metaphorically at least, threw the coldest of cold water on the popular British ardor for forcing Western civilization on the Chinese people.

Lord Salisbury's frame of mind was one which could never allow him to become even for a moment a thorough jingo, and through all the later years of his power he held the office of Prime Minister at a time when jingoism was the order of the day among the outside supporters of the Conservative Government. He never had a fair chance for the full development of his intellectual faculties while he remained at the head of a Conservative administration. Under happier conditions he might have been a great Prime Minister and a leading force in political movement, but his intellect, his tastes, and his habits of life did not allow him to pay much deference to the prejudices and passions of those on whom he was compelled to rely for support. There was too much in him of the thinker, the scholar, and the recluse to make him a thoroughly effective leader of the party who had to acknowledge his command. He loved reading, he loved literature and art, and he took no delight in the formal social functions which are in our days an important part of successful political administration. He could not be "hail-fellow-well-met" with every pushing follower who made it a pride to be on terms of companionship with the leader of the party. I have often heard that he had a singularly bad memory for faces, and that many a devoted Tory follower found his enthusiasm chilled every now and then by the oblivious fact that the Prime Minister did not seem to remember anything about the identity of his obtrusive admirer. Much the same thing has been said over and over again about Mr. Gladstone; but then Gladstone had the inborn genius of leadership, threw his soul into every great political movement, and did not depend in the slightest degree on his faculty for appreciating and conciliating every individual follower. Lord Salisbury's tastes were for the society of his close personal friends, and I believe no man could be a more genial host in the company of those with whom he loved to associate; but he had no interest in the ordinary ways of society and made no effort to conciliate those with whom he found himself in no manner of companionship. He did not even take any strong interest in the study of the most remarkable figures in the political world around him, if he did not feel drawn into sympathy with their ways and their opinions. On one occasion, when a report had got about in the newspapers that Lord Salisbury was often seen in friendly companionship with the late Mr. Parnell in the smoking-room of the House of Commons, Lord Salisbury publicly stated that he had never, to his knowledge, seen Parnell, and had never been once in the House of Commons smoking-room.

No man has been better known, so far as personal appearance was concerned, to the general English public than Lord Salisbury. He has been as well known as Mr. Gladstone himself, and one cannot say more than that. He was a frequent walker in St. James's Park and other places of common resort in the neighborhood of the House of Parliament. Every one knew the tall, broad, stooping figure with the thick head of hair, the bent brows, and the careless, shabby costume. No statesman of his time was more indifferent than Lord Salisbury to the dictates of fashion as regarded dress and deportment. He was undoubtedly one of the worst-dressed men of his order in London. In this peculiarity he formed a remarkable contrast to Lord Beaconsfield, who down to the very end of his life took care to be always dressed according to the most recent dictates of fashion. All this was strictly in keeping with Lord Salisbury's character and temperament. The world had to take him as he was—he could never bring himself to act any part for the sake of its effect upon the public. My own impression is that when he was removed by the decree of fate into the House of Lords and taken away from the active, thrilling life of the House of Commons he felt himself excluded from his congenial field of political action and had but little interest in the game of politics any more. He does not seem destined to a place in the foremost rank of English Prime Ministers, even of English Conservative Prime Ministers. But his is beyond all question a picturesque, a deeply interesting, and even a commanding figure in English political history.

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The Financial Administration of Colleges

By Henry A. Stimson

MR. CARNEGIE'S creation of a board of trustees to manage his ten-million-dollar gift to promote Scientific Research, Mr. Leland Stanford's founding of the university that bears his son's name, and Mr. Rockefeller's great gifts to resurrect and establish the Chicago University, serve only to remind us that for now nearly three hundred years a great array of relatively small givers have been placing sums which aggregate many millions of dollars in the hands of trustees for the benefit of the public in educational lines. If to these be added the great sums intrusted by the people through the Legislatures to the Regents of the State universities, cases in which the endowment has been in land grants of a value difficult to estimate, but already, as in Texas and Minnesota, of vast proportions, it will be seen that the amount is sufficiently large and the interest of the public in its legal relations and management sufficiently vital to make it second to none. The aggregate is, for various reasons, difficult to discover, the last census of the United States being in this respect incomplete, but it amounts to many millions of dollars.

Some would be disposed to add to the purely educational trusts the great philanthropic benefactions, of which the Sailors' Snug Harbor in New York and the Board of Governors of the New York Hospital are examples, and the various ecclesiastical corporations, like Trinity and the Reformed Collegiate Churches, the Roman Catholic Bishop, who is a "corporation sole," holding in his own name the property of his diocese, and the different Catholic orders, which have held large properties and peculiar relations to the people in the Philippine Islands, and already have very large holdings in the United States; but for all these there is more or less special legislation, and the consideration of the forms of trust which they represent and the method of their administration, important as these matters are becoming, does not now concern us. The question which I propose to discuss is the administration of the finances of our endowed educational institutions considered as a public trust.

The college or university is, of course, primarily a corporation. It almost invariably has a special charter from the State. These charters the States were slow to grant, and at first restricted them within very narrow limits. The Dartmouth College case not only fixed the inviolability of these charters, but gave an impulse to a line of development in their administration which has become largely characteristic, and is only now attracting attention and beginning to change. The bitter struggle which Yale College went through under President Clap, in contest with the State of Connecticut, to secure its independence and life, naturally crowded the early governing boards into an attitude of defense, and ultimately of secrecy. Trustees felt the importance of a trust for the benefit or understanding of which the community was in many cases not yet prepared, and which had in it advantages and powers to be carefully shielded. In most cases it consisted in large part of real estate, and its amount and value could not be concealed. But to protect the institution from destructive taxation or from hostile legislation, the necessity was apparent for all the privacy of administration that was possible. After the two or three great contests, the State was content not to interfere, and the colleges have been more than willing to be let alone. They are corporations, but without stockholders. The trustees are, in the main, self-perpetuating. There is no official accountability. And the feeling has naturally grown within the boards of management that these institutions are largely private affairs, of which the corporate body is the virtual owner.

That these corporations are trusts in the true sense, the same to all intents and purposes as those created by wills (which was the original form of trust), appears from several considerations. Though they are generally close corporations and self-perpetuating, the members of the corporation have no financial interest and

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derive no profit from their trusts. They are supposably punishable for tort, but have no personal financial liability. They do business in other States than that in which they are chartered, on the same basis as private individuals. They buy and sell land and loan money only under such regulation as applies to citizens. The courts have settled it that these and all similar corporations exist solely for the sake of the beneficiaries, and if the term *owner* is to be used at all, it applies exclusively to the latter—that is, in the case of educational institutions, to the faculty and students, for whose benefit the trust was originally created.

In fact, therefore, we have here a trust in the largest proportions, long established, in the highest degree beneficent, and in the manifest interest of the whole people. The method of its administration is obviously of more importance to the public, and perhaps will have more to do in quieting the public mind and preparing the way for the healthy and beneficent development of the trust idea, than the mere fact or form of its legal standing in comparison with trusts as ordinarily known.

In common with other trusts, the time has come when the administrators must take the public more frankly into their confidence. Public confidence is the basis of all forms of organized social activity. The colleges are no exception. To the fullest extent they have enjoyed this confidence in their ability to produce men. The time has come when they can set the example and do much to establish the confidence of the public in the ability of these men to manage large financial trusts both honestly and honorably. Happily, that confidence in the administration of our educational institutions has not been disturbed. It is true that there have been defalcations and losses, but they have been few and not important. Because of the undisturbed confidence of the public in college officers, it is their privilege to take, in advance of pressure, an attitude toward the public which, as both legally correct and administratively prudent, would constitute an important contribution to the healthful financial progress of society. They have the entire confidence of the community as educational institutions, long tried and thoroughly approved. The time has come when they deserve a similar confidence, and owe it to themselves to secure it, distinctively as public financial trusts. The question as to how this is to be accomplished may not at once be satisfactorily answered. The habit of secrecy and the conviction that it is an important factor in protection against attack are long established. Some conscientiously feel that if the actual facts (in some cases of their poverty, in others of their wealth) were known, it would interfere with their ability to secure increased benefactions. The mere sense of control of large sums of money, detached from a sharp and constant consciousness of personal accountability, constitutes a subtle temptation to magnify the importance of one's position and to make one reluctant to share it with others. The more splendid the success of the administration and the more distinguished the institution, the stronger is this feeling. But, whether for reasons which have some show of justification or have not, the time has surely come when the frankest and fullest publicity is not only desirable but is demanded in the interests both of the institutions and of the community.

To this end there ought to be a periodic and official, if not a more or less public, accounting. The presidents of some of our largest universities have begun to issue annual reports with increasing detail, and some college treasurers do the same; but, as a rule, such has not been the case. In some institutions lax accounting has long prevailed, and often slack financial responsibility. I know one institution of the highest class whose newly appointed treasurer has had the greatest difficulty in interpreting and adjusting the accounts of his predecessor; another where the new treasurer accepted his position only after an outside expert had been called in to fix the various balances with which he might open an entirely new set of books; another, of the highest standing and most successful management, whose trustees have not for years had from their treasurer an account that was more than a memorandum of what he thought wise to communicate; another that has only recently revised its entire system of accounts; and I am told that for three months or more experts have been at work upon the books of one of the largest institutions of the

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country. A complete printed annual report of a college treasurer is still a rarity. Finance committees often do little more than record the action of the treasurer, and boards of trustees go through the form of accepting reports of which they have but the slightest knowledge, and for which they feel the minimum of responsibility.

The bearing of all this upon the situation as it stands to-day is shown in an incident that has recently occurred. The treasurer of an important Eastern college, himself a prominent business man, told me that in response to an application which he ventured to make to a well-known millionaire for a large benefaction, he received an invitation to an interview. After he had carefully answered certain questions that were addressed to him, his friend said, "I will let you know my decision before long." A few days afterwards a stranger walked into the office of the college, introducing himself as the representative of the millionaire, and asked to see the treasurer's books. He spent a number of hours in a careful examination of them and also of the minutes of the trustees. A week or two passed, when my friend was summoned to a second interview. The millionaire said, "I have had a careful examination made of your institution. I find that your treasurer does not run the college, and that your trustees attend to their business, that your accounts are properly kept, and that your funds are well invested. I have therefore decided to give you" so much—a very large sum of money. There may have been some show of excuse, in the early days of a struggling institution, for the president to carry its accounts on scraps of paper in his coat pocket, as has been the case in the past. There may have been justification for devoted officers of institutions that have had to struggle for success in the face of the competition of rival institutions and the antagonism of the State, to make their financial affairs as closely matters of private concern as was possible. But in the light of the new attitude which is now everywhere being taken by both the legislatures and the courts toward all institutions that are recognized as existing for the welfare of the people—an attitude which is disclosed in the legislation of all the States from New York to California, now everywhere notably generous and kindly toward such institutions—it certainly is no longer necessary. And the time has come when, in view of the widespread discussion of matters of public finance by all classes, and of the relations in which trusts in every form have come to stand toward the interests of the people, it is the privilege of those who are the managers of this oldest form of trust that exists in our land to so administer them, in openness to the public eye, in manifest carefulness of detail, and in unquestioned devotion to the public service, that they shall not only command the public confidence for themselves, but shall quiet the public unrest and strengthen the confidence of the people in the general stability of our financial condition. Many of our religious and philanthropic corporations have already established the rule of an official audit of their books by a public accountant. Some are insisting that their funds shall be deposited in the trust companies, and even employing them in connection with their own financial committees as agents for investment. No board of management, however generous its service or however distinguished the position of its individual members, will be exonerated in case of trouble, either by the courts or by the public, unless it can show at once that it has taken advantage of modern methods of doing business and has exercised that kind of care which to-day is alone regarded as adequate. The time has come when the common people no less than the millionaires insist on knowing that their benefactions are carefully administered as well as safely kept.

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Emergency Relief in Great Disasters

By Edward T. Devine

General Secretary of the Charity Organization Society of New York City

FORTUNATELY, the need for charitable relief in American communities is comparatively rare. It is not, as it has elsewhere become, a usual feature in the life of the ordinary laborer. Abnormal immigration, industrial crises, a wasteful and unwise relief policy, and such disasters as a great city fire, the overflowing of rivers, or the destructive sweep of the tornado, have caused at times acute and even widespread distress, which has led to the adoption of emergency relief measures.

The questions arising from immigration—like those arising from the presence of a race problem in the Southern States—although they are essentially relief questions in a broad sense, are not of an emergency character, and are too complex to be dealt with briefly as a part of the present article. The problem of hard times and the distress caused by industrial displacement must also be set aside for the present; although it is enumerated as one which is not to be disposed of by a consideration of such National policies as the currency, the tariff or other form of taxation, imperialism, or the management of trade-unions. On the contrary, in every period of depression and unemployment there is likely to arise a need for exceptional relief; and in a progressive society in which mechanical processes are rapidly discarded to make way for better processes such needs are likely to increase rather than diminish.

The demand for relief which is created by unwise philanthropy or lavish expenditure for public relief may likewise be passed over; although there is no doubt that a considerable part of the existing dependency is due directly to such causes.

Immigration, hard times, industrial displacement, the congestion of population, and the race problem, are all to be considered as exceptional causes of distress, with which we shall one day know how to deal effectively. They are unlike sickness, accident, and death of the bread-winner, unlike mere industrial inefficiency and moral defects, in that all of the latter can be remedied only by changes in human nature, or by the slow, if steady, advance of science; and yet all of these are but phases of the general problem of relief. Those who are to shape National and local policies must come to look upon them as parts of a general problem, to solve which clear and definite views are essential. From these we may distinguish, as less complex and baffling than many of the others, the task of dealing with exceptional emergencies—such as are caused by fire, flood, and famine. In the presence of such disasters as those at Heppner, Oregon, Armourdale, Kansas, and Martinique, there can be no doubt of the need for quick and effective assistance, and there can be no doubt of the wisdom of considering the lessons to be gained from the study of such disasters, after they are passed.

The first lesson which is written large in the experience of those who have been called upon to deal with such disasters is the folly and wastefulness of relying upon inexperienced, untrained, or incompetent agents for the distribution of relief and for the constructive work without which relief distribution may easily be productive of more harm than good. There are always at such times novel problems to be solved, but the experience of other communities under similar or analogous conditions will aid in their solution if it can be brought to bear. It may be, as at Chicago after the great fire, that the problem is primarily one of relief pending the resumption of trade and industry. It may be, as at Johnstown and at Heppner, that the problem of sanitation and public safety is equally important; or, as at Martinique, that the destruction of life is so complete that little relief is required except for the transportation of the few survivors for whom no means of livelihood remain. It may be that, as in Paterson after the fire and flood of March, 1902, and the tornado of 1903, the community as a whole remains self-supporting, even though one portion is severely taxed to supply the necessities of other portions

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that have especially suffered, and that as a consequence no outside relief is needed; or, on the other hand, as at Galveston after the inundation in September, 1900, and at Kansas City, Kansas, this year, that all classes have been so uniformly stricken that outside relief is imperative; or it may be, as at East St. Louis and adjoining villages, that relief is provided in sufficient quantity from towns and cities in the immediate vicinity, although not in sufficient amount from the stricken town or city itself.

It is indispensable that there shall be a quick perception of the essential features of the existing situation in those who would lead a community and outside sympathizers to a wise conclusion in the face of impending or accomplished destruction of life and property.

When it has been decided that there is need of relief, whether in the form of money, of transportation, of labor, or of whatever form, then there should be summoned an executive, if such a one can be found, who is endowed with financial capacity, a knowledge of human nature, experience in dealing with men, and acquaintance with the peculiar and difficult problems constantly arising in the attempt to relieve suffering and distress without injury to the self-respect of those who are to be aided, and without injury to their neighbors. If the problem is a large and complicated one, numerous subcommittees will be requisite and a staff of assistants. There should be searching inquiry into the claims for relief where the facts are not fully known. The bureau of inquiry inaugurated at Johnstown by Mr. Tom L. Johnson, of Cleveland, speedily became one of the most important features of the whole relief system, and upon it eventually devolved the real decision as to the persons to be aided and as to the amounts they should receive.

There should be an executive committee, whether called by that name as in Chicago, or by some other designation, thoroughly acquainted with local conditions and in constant touch with the relief operations. Whether this committee should have the full responsibility, or should itself be responsible to a larger board or commission, will depend upon various conditions, and especially upon the extent of the area from which donations are received. If contributions are made from distant communities, it may be advisable that there should be representatives upon the controlling body from such communities, or at least there should be as members of it citizens of sufficient reputation and standing to inspire a feeling of confidence even in the most distant places. After the Johnstown flood, a commission was appointed by State authority on which there was comparatively little local representation, and the principal responsibility in Johnstown itself, during the period of greatest need, rested upon what was known was a finance committee. Although there are advantages in an authoritative and widely representative commission, such as that which was then created, it is doubtful whether the resulting delays and the lack of familiarity with the actual situation are not fatal objections. It is certain that commissions, if made at a distance, should be influenced by the opinions of those who are on the spot. In any event, the real responsibility will naturally rest principally upon the local executive committee and its executive. The committee should lay down the principles on which aid is to be extended, and full responsibility for carrying them into effect should devolve upon the executive.

Material should be preserved for the publication of a detailed report, including a detailed financial record both of receipts and disbursements. This is not only due to contributors and to the public as a guide in future emergencies, but it is of advantage to those who are responsible for the relief measures in order that, if criticism or controversies arise, a full statement can be made. The Fire Report of the Chicago Relief and Aid Society and the Report published in Calcutta of the Central Executive Committee of the Indian Famine Charitable Relief Fund of 1900 may be cited as models of most complete and elaborate reports; and, although of briefer compass, the Report of the Secretary of the Johnstown Flood Relief Commission, the Report of the Jacksonville (1901) Relief Association, and the Report of the Minnesota State Commission for the Relief of Fire Sufferers (September, 1894; report printed 1895), are equally explicit and valuable as sources of information.

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The failure to publish similar reports, or, indeed, anything that can be properly called a report or a financial statement, is one of the just criticisms made against the American National Red Cross. This society has taken part in the relief of the sufferers from the forest fires in Michigan in 1881, from the overflow of the Mississippi River in 1882 and of the Ohio in 1883, from the Mississippi cyclone in the same year, from the overflow of the Ohio and Mississippi in 1884, from the drought in Texas in 1886, from the Charleston earthquake in the same year, from the Mount Vernon (Illinois) cyclone in 1888, from the yellow fever epidemic in Florida in the same year, from the Johnstown disaster in 1889, from the inundation, hurricane, and tidal wave of the South Carolina coast in 1893 and 1894, and from the Galveston flood.

In connection with these various enterprises, and others in which the Red Cross has been interested, large sums of money have been contributed to the Red Cross Society, but for their disbursement no suitable public accounting appears to have been made in any instance. In the pamphlets and addresses issued by the Society such paragraphs as the following take the place of definite statements concerning what was actually done and what relation such action bore to the relief work of other and often more important agencies:

"The Secretary brought together the women of Johnstown, bowed to the earth with sorrow and bereavement, and the most responsible were formed into committees charged with definite duties towards the homeless and distraught of the community. Through them the wants of over three thousand families—more than twenty thousand persons—were made known in writing to the Red Cross, and by it supplied; the white wagons with the red symbol fetching and carrying for the stricken people."

It is principally considerations of this kind that have led to the recent remonstrance from some of the most prominent members of the Red Cross Society, and to an attempt, thus far unsuccessful, to bring about a reorganization of its management, especially on the financial side.

In times of great calamity, such as we have been considering, there are many who are ordinarily self-supporting who find themselves suddenly bereft of property, of accumulated savings, of the means of livelihood, and even of the barest necessities of life. The disaster may befall a community of high industrial standards, with few, if any, paupers or public dependents—a community in which there is little lawlessness and crime. Under such conditions, the principle of indemnity, as distinct from that of charity, may well have a very general application. The principle of indemnity is that of the fire insurance companies, and, in a modified form, also that of the life and accident insurance companies. It implies the reinstatement of the beneficiary as nearly as possible in the position from which he was hurled by the calamity which has befallen him. It implies that to the householder shall be given the use of a house, to the mechanic his tools, to the family its household furniture, to the laborer the opportunity of remunerative employment. For the community as a whole it means the speedy restoration of such commercial and industrial activities as have been temporarily suspended, the rebuilding of bridges, the reopening of streets, the reestablishment of banks, business houses, churches, and schools. It requires that protection shall be given to the defenseless, food and shelter to the homeless, suitable guardianship to the orphan, and, as nearly as possible, normal social and industrial conditions to all. The charitable principle takes account only of the necessities of those who apply for aid; the principle of indemnity gives greater weight to their material losses and the circumstances under which they were previously placed. It is a vital question whether the principle of indemnity might not properly have a wider application to ordinary relief than has usually been given to it, but we may be certain that the pauperizing effects supposed to result from liberal relief have not been found to follow the most generous attempts to avert completely the paralyzing and direful consequences of such disasters as we are now considering. Both in Chicago and in Johnstown hundreds of families were placed by gifts of money, or of house, furniture, clothing, and tools, in a position practically as good as that which they had occupied before the fire or the flood

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respectively. There is ample testimony that in practically all instances good results were obtained from this policy. In Chicago harmful consequences in the subsequent charitable history of the city have been traced to a retention of a portion of the money by those who were its custodians; and in Johnstown there was unquestionable hardship from the delay in its distribution and from the early indiscriminate grants made without knowledge of the circumstances of claimants; but in neither city were there well-founded complaints of the results of discriminating and judicious disbursements in large amounts made with the avowed purpose of putting the recipients in a position to carry on their former or equally appropriate vocations.

On several occasions the usefulness in great emergencies of detachments of the standing army which have happened to be near at hand has been demonstrated. The perfect discipline and the organization constantly maintained in the army may save days at a time when even hours are of the greatest importance. The National Guard of the various States might render, and in some instances—notably at East St. Louis, Missouri, this year—has rendered, similar service. The suggestion made by Dr. F. H. Wines in the "Charities Review" for June, 1898, that soldiers are of great utility as an aid in emergency relief work, was based upon an experience in the relief of sufferers from an overflow of the Ohio River at Shawneetown, Illinois. The detail which came to his assistance on that occasion consisted of a sergeant and nine men, and their special duty was that of patrol and other similar service. Dr. Wines found that even then twenty men would have been better. Dr. Wines recommends that where any portion of the population of a given community requires the shelter of tents, a temporary canvas city provided by the State or Nation should be organized and remain under the control of the military authorities. By maintaining strict military discipline the inhabitants of the emergency camp at Shawneetown, slightly exceeding at one time two hundred in number, of whom two-thirds were negroes, were at all times under thorough control. By the aid of the military force it became possible to provide for these refugees "a care so sympathetic and paternal that it produced . . . no pauperizing impression."

For the temporary camp in Kansas City, Kansas, tents were supplied from the Federal post at Fort Leavenworth, and for the similar but smaller camp on the Missouri side, for residents of Kansas City who had been driven from their homes by the flood, tents were supplied by the State militia; and in both cities detachments of the National Guard were called upon for patrol duty. One of the principal reasons for such a military patrol is the temporary disorganization of the community. The local constabulary is likely to be demoralized and excited, and the presence of State militia gives confidence and security to people who need temporary moral support.

While soldiers may profitably be employed in the manner that has been indicated, it will not ordinarily be found advantageous to place upon them responsibility for relief or for remedial measures. Military discipline has its limitations as well as its advantages, and it would unfit the average soldier or petty officer to exercise that discriminating judgment and personal influence which are so essential in dealing with people who have suddenly lost their possessions and require aid and counsel in readjusting their affairs and regaining a foothold in the industrial system. At the earliest practicable moment the ordinary municipal authority should be established and the necessity for military patrol overcome.

At Johnstown one of the most interesting chapters in the history of the few months succeeding the flood is that which deals with the restoration of municipal borough authorities to the full exercise of their functions. In some of the boroughs affected by the flood there was left no building in which a meeting of the borough council could be held. Self-constituted committees had temporarily managed police, health, and fire departments, and later such duties had been in part assumed by State authorities. Gradually, however, the Adjutant-General, representing the State government, sought out those who had been duly chosen to perform such duties, arranged suitable meeting-places for councils and public boards, and transferred to them the duties which it had

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again become possible for them to perform. No legal or other controversies arose in connection with these ultra-constitutional arrangements, and no act of the Legislature was thought necessary to legalize what had been done in the interval during which ordinary municipal activities were suspended, or the acts performed by the reorganized and restored municipal authorities.

One suggestion which is frequently made is that relief in emergencies should never be in money, but always in its equivalent. This suggestion is not to be adopted without consideration of the character of the proposed beneficiaries. It is probable that, so far as disbursements from public funds are concerned, the policy suggested is wise, and that provision of employment where emergency relief measures are necessary is still better than relief in kind. Instead of opening free shelters, depots for free food and for the distribution of clothing, as early as possible a reliable list should be made, based upon a knowledge of the portion of the community affected by the disaster. In Baltimore, after the recent tornado, the police, under the direction of the Marshal, prepared a census of all the families residing within the storm area. When a reliable list of this kind has been prepared, applications may be compared with it and intelligent decisions reached as to the relief required.

The conclusion reached by the Johnstown Flood Commission to make a distribution of money was eminently justified by the conditions that there prevailed. It was then proposed, and indeed at one time it had virtually been decided by the Commission, instead of dividing the money in their hands after providing for various special needs, to establish large warehouses and fill them with clothing and other necessaries of life, to be distributed as occasion might require throughout the ensuing winter. The change of plan was made because of earnest and emphatic protests from prominent citizens of Johnstown who were personally acquainted with the people for whom this scheme of relief was proposed, and who appreciated the absurdity of applying to skilled mechanics and prosperous trade people the principles which are based upon distrust either of the honesty or intelligence of ordinary applicants for relief.

One cannot commend the methods of those almoners in Johnstown who, instead of placing their funds in the hands of the relief committees, passed through the streets handing ten-dollar bills to every one whom they met. The criticism, however, lies not against their use of money, but against their lack of discrimination and common sense. Many of those to whom grants of one thousand dollars and upwards were made instantly became engaged in active industry and trade, and within a few months, except for the loss of relatives, neighbors, and friends, might have looked upon their experience as a nightmare to be forgotten in the waking hours of renewed active life. It is probable that so large a sum has never before been poured into a community of equal size with so little damage to the personal character of the citizens and so complete an absence of any pauperizing or demoralizing influences. In the opinion of good judges resident in the city both before and after the flood, this is due in part to the fact that money was given, and that those who received it were left free to decide for themselves how it should be expended.

Two other considerations may be suggested. Special emergencies display in a high degree the need of local co-operation. In meeting such distress as is caused in populous communities by a tornado or a serious fire, there is a place for the activity of the Chamber of Commerce or Merchants' Association, or some other representative of the business interests of the community. The task relative to the large sums of money usually requisite can best be undertaken by some such body. Any appeal having their indorsement will be likely to meet with generous and quick response. There is a place also for the Charity Organization Society, or Bureau of Charities, or Provident Association, or some other general agency whose officers and agents are trained in investigation and in the administration of funds. It may also be expedient, if no such general agency is in existence, to call upon the churches or upon such denominational bodies as the Society of St. Vincent de Paul and the Hebrew Charities. There may also be a need for children's aid

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societies or the representatives of orphan asylums to care for children who are left without guardianship; and there is almost always an urgent demand for physicians, for a temporary ambulance and hospital service, and for trained nurses. Often the aid rendered by volunteer private citizens is more valuable than that of any organized agency, and often the absence of organized relief makes it imperative that private citizens shall undertake to do what is essential, whether from choice or not.

One of the best illustrations of successful local co-operation in a special emergency is described in a brief account given by Walter S. Ufford in "Charities" of August 8, although in the storm which was its occasion no lives were lost, and the amount of relief required was less than four thousand dollars. In Baltimore, as in some other communities, a citizens' permanent relief committee has been created to deal with great National disasters, but so efficient was the co-operation of the various local societies that public sentiment did not demand a calling of the meeting of that committee.

This leads to my final suggestion, which is that in the presence of even a serious disaster leaders of public opinion should attempt to preserve in the public mind a due sense of proportion. Even in the presence of urgent need at a distance, the continuing and probably equally imperative needs at hand should not be forgotten.

It is not surprising, in view of the frightful loss of life at Martinique and its proximity to our own shores, that the New York committee should have received some eighty thousand dollars more than they could disburse, in spite of an announcement by the committee that it would not take additional contributions. This was in part due to the fact that the eruption occurred in foreign territory, and that public appropriations were made both by the United States and France.

I would not be understood as discountenancing large and immediate responses to such appeals. By no means all that is given to meet special emergencies is deducted from ordinary charitable resources. There should, however, be cultivated a sane and reasonable examination of the probable need; and the citizen who gives, even with great liberality, should not on that account consider himself free from the obligation to consider also the needs of his immediate neighbor. The city, even in prosperous times, through its quick industrial changes and by the very conditions of life which it imposes, places upon some weak shoulders burdens which are not rightfully theirs and which it is the duty—and it is an agreeable duty—of their neighbors to share.

Managing a National Park

By Henry Harrison Lewis

SEVERAL years ago a well-known magazine illustrator conceived the idea of producing a series of sketches showing Uncle Sam in his various characters. The scheme was to draw the typical lean, shrewd face with its chin-whisker, and garb the body according to the character in question. The artist began to compile a list, starting with the army and navy, but when the list had grown beyond the hundred mark he decided that the Washington Government's duties were too multitudinous to make the plan practicable.

If the artist had completed his series, one of the characters would have shown Uncle Sam in a nondescript costume made up of a cavalry uniform, a range-rider's buckskins, and a Cabinet official's conventional clothing. This picturesque costume would have represented the Government in its capacity as manager of the Yellowstone National Park, the most stupendous of its kind on earth and in character quite unique.

Perhaps it is only natural that the many articles published about the Yellowstone Park have told only the scenic side of it, but the result is that few persons know anything about the rules established by the Government for the maintenance and care of this most remarkable wonderland.

It was in 1872 that Congress enacted

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the law reserving from settlement the great tract of land

"Tucked away among the mountains on the crest of the continent,"

where the border-lines of Wyoming, Montana, and Idaho meet, but for the following six years it allowed it practically to protect itself. The first appropriation to care for and improve the Park was made in 1878, and amounted to $10,000. When it became evident that some form of local government was required, it was decided to place the territory under the charge of the Interior Department, and to commit the actual guarding to an army officer and a detachment of United States troops. Our soldiers surely could not be assigned work more useful and patriotic in times of peace than that of preserving for posterity this magnificent natural museum.

The first appropriation was ridiculously small and inadequate, but last year the sums set apart to improve and perfect the Park and to provide the proper administrative force, exclusive of the cost and maintenance of the soldiery quartered there, reached the generous total of $750,000. The greater part of this money was expended in extending the system of roadways and in opening a new entrance by way of the Wyoming border.

Although the seat of control is in the office of the Secretary of the Interior, the headquarters, the capital, so to speak, of the district is at the Mammoth Hot Springs, where Fort Yellowstone is situated, and where practically all the travel in the Park passes. It is here that Major Pitcher—the commandant and the superintendent of the Park—has his station, and it is at this point that the troops of cavalry make their headquarters.

Although the superintendent is supposed to govern according to his discretion and the circumstances of the case, there are strict regulations promulgated in Washington relating to the protection of the natural phenomena of the Park from injury and mutilation, to the carrying of firearms, protection from forest fires, and care of the animals, fish, and birds of the Park.

To secure the better enforcement of these regulations, the troops are stationed in detachments of from three to ten men each at the most frequented points. These stations, ten in number, are located at Mammoth Hot Springs, Norris Basin, Lower Geyser Basin, Upper Geyser Basin, The Thumb, Lake Station, the Grand Cañon, Soda Butte, Riverside, and Snake River. A glance at a detailed map of the Yellowstone Park will show that these little outposts are so arranged as to cover the entire area, or at least that part accessible to the ordinary tourist. From each of these stations a system of daily mounted patrols is kept up over some two hundred miles of road. The fact that from the headquarters at Mammoth Hot Springs to the most remote station, Snake River, is a distance of ninety miles, shows the scale on which the Park is laid out.

One efficient aid in keeping out undesirable visitors is the fact that during nine months of the year the interior of the Park is accessible to the public by practically only one route—that through Gardiner, on the north boundary. The other entrances, of which there are three more, are blocked by snow, and although it would be possible to penetrate them with a heavily provisioned expedition, skillfully guided, it would not be long before the presence of such an expedition would be known to the soldiers.

An incident that occurred during President Roosevelt's recent visit proves the exceedingly careful manner in which the Park is guarded. When Mr. Roosevelt made it known that his object in entering the Yellowstone Park was to secure several days of complete privacy, and that he did not want any one aside from Major Pitcher and the picked escort to accompany him, a certain correspondent representing a New York daily, who had been ordered to be on hand in case of any accident to the President or other emergency of National importance, resolved to ignore the President's request and to follow him at all hazards.

With this object in view, he attempted to bribe some of the native population, but without success. Not disheartened by his failure to secure a friendly companion and guide, the correspondent hired a horse and persuaded a stray dog to accompany him. This was on the afternoon of the President's arrival at Fort Yellowstone. The Fort is ten miles from Gardiner, where the rest of the correspondents and the President's party had stopped.

The recreant correspondent set forth

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in high glee at the possibility of working a "beat" on his fellow-craftsmen. As he rode along through the leafy lanes and past the towering cliffs which in part line the road to the Springs, he felt very well satisfied with himself, and chuckled at the ease with which he had evaded the guards stationed near Gardiner. Suddenly, as he was entering a particularly dark part of a forest, he heard a voice from the brush on the right.

"Theodore Jones," it said slowly and in unmistakable authoritative tones. "Theodore Jones!"

The correspondent reined up his horse in amazement. Who was it calling his name? Had he been followed from Gardiner? If so, why did the voice come from the bushes and evidently some distance from the road?

"Hello!" he shouted, in reply.

There was no answer. He called again and again, but without result. Then he put spurs to his horse and rode on. Half a mile further down the road, just as he was passing through another bit of woodland, a deep voice called out seemingly at his very elbow:

"Theodore Jones! Theodore Jones-s-s! Better go back."

For one moment the newspaper man hesitated, then he rode resolutely forward. He felt that he was being tricked, but he intended to see the game out. He was a bit nervous because he realized that his course of action was not entirely honorable, and it was with something very like relief that he espied at a turn in the road a United States trooper sitting with horse blocking the path and a rifle slung carelessly across the pommel of his saddle.

"Halt!" called out the soldier. "Mr. Jones, you are wanted at Headquarters."

"How do you know my name is Jones?" demanded the correspondent.

The trooper smiled as if the question was a joke. Placing one hand upon the correspondent's bridle, he led him without further words to Fort Yellowstone. A technical charge of unlawfully bringing a dog into the reservation was entered against Mr. Jones, but he was released on his promise not to enter the Park again until the President's return. The incident had its value in showing the extreme care taken by the Park's guardians in keeping out unwelcome visitors. The correspondent's errand was known at Headquarters before he had crossed the line.

It would seem to be a difficult problem to take care of more than sixty-two square miles of park with two troops of cavalry, but the system followed is so well planned that good results are obtained. In summer the troops patrol mainly the roads along which tourist travel is greatest. During the hunting season careful watch is kept of the game ranges in order to prevent poaching. The Yellowstone and Teton forest reserves to the south of the Park are under the same administration, though still subject largely to the laws of Wyoming.

To facilitate winter scouting a number of snowshoe cabins have been erected at intervals of about one day's travel throughout the Park. These cabins are supplied at the beginning of winter with food, bedding, fuel, matches, and cooking utensils. They are indispensable for the maintenance of the Park regulations and the protection of the guards, for without these the winter patrols would be limited to one-day or at most two-day trips from the permanent stations. All travel in winter is done on skees, the great depth of the snow effectually preventing the ordinary means of transportation.

The precautions against forest fires are particularly strict and thorough. As fully eighty-five per cent. of the Park is forested, the work of fire-prevention is one of the most harassing and arduous that falls to its guardians. Notices to guard against fires are posted throughout the Park and at all places suitable for camping. All camps are examined by the patrols after they have been vacated, to see that the fires are extinguished. Failure to thus extinguish a fire on moving camp means arrest and trial before the United States Commissioner.

The wild denizens of the Park are, of course, strictly protected from attack. Hunting, killing, or capturing any wild animal except dangerous animals in defending one's self from an attack is prohibited. At times campers have found it necessary to shoot bears who come too near for comfort, but the occasion is seldom. Firearms are permitted in the Park only on written permission from the superintendent. Fishing for profit, or in any

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manner except with hook and line, is likewise prohibited. The superintendent may at any time declare a close season in any or all the Park waters. As a consequence of the vigilant and unsparing enforcement of these rules, poaching on the National preserve has been reduced to a minimum, and the animals within the reservation are gaining yearly in numbers and fearlessness.

During his very interesting visit to the Park, President Roosevelt had an excellent opportunity to secure personal knowledge of conditions affecting the game. It is known that he is heartily in favor of the policy making the Yellowstone reservation not only a place of recreation and sightseeing for tourists, but also a great breeding-ground for American fauna. The President saw during his eight days' stay immense herds of elk, so many in fact that it was difficult to believe that all of them could find feeding-place in even the Park's large area. There was abundant evidence that a number of elk and other animals had died of starvation during the winter, and it was this fact which caused the President to recommend the discontinuance of hunting the lions, cougars, and bobcats with the Government's packs of cougar hounds. Mr. Roosevelt's long experience with nature in the open enabled him to see that nature was better able to practice economy than man.

In addition to the elk there are fully a thousand of the American antelope living under National protection. They are among the most troublesome of the wild inhabitants, because of their propensity to stray across the boundary line, where they are almost sure to be shot by some of the hunters who hang around the outskirts of the Park waiting for just such an opportunity.

The common deer abound everywhere, frequently appearing on the parade-ground at Mammoth Hot Springs, so fearless have they become through long immunity. There are still many splendid specimens of the moose to be seen, and since the enactment of strict protecting laws by the Wyoming Legislature they have begun to increase in numbers. The beaver, once plentiful in every American stream, but now confined to a few favored haunts, here finds a safe refuge and builds his dams undisturbed. The buffalo herd, one of the few remaining, contains forty or fifty members; these are the only animals that show a decrease in numbers from year to year.

Besides enforcing the game laws and fire regulations, the Park officials have to look after the safety of the thousands of tourists, and to see that the roads and bridges are passable after the storms of winter. The road-making and other engineering work is under the direction of the United States Engineer Corps. Recently improvements to the estimated amount of $300,000 were completed. Many miles of new roads have been constructed, and the old ones made safer and better adapted to traveling.

Transportation in the Park is in the hands of the Yellowstone Park Transportation Company. The company operates two stage lines with the regulation outfit of coaches, teams, and drivers. These lines run through the Park, one connecting with the Northern Pacific Railroad at Gardiner, Montana, and the other with the Oregon Short Line at Monida, Idaho, making a tour of all the principal points in five days. There are also a number of licensed guides who will personally conduct a camping party. This method of "doing" the Park relieves one of the necessity of patronizing the Park hotels, as those who travel by stage are obliged to do.

The regulations provided by the Government for the Yellowstone Park are few in number, but they are rigorously enforced. For the benefit of intending visitors to the Park, as well as others who may be interested in the subject, several of the more important rules are herewith given.

For instance, those visitors who may feel inclined to carry away souvenirs of their stay should understand that they are strictly enjoined from removing or injuring the sediments or incrustations around the geysers, hot springs, or steam vents. It is also forbidden to deface the same by written inscriptions or otherwise.

If the reader has it in his mind to take residence in Yellowstone Park, it will be well for him to get permission in writing from the Department of the Interior, or he will find himself hastily vacating at the point of a very earnest cavalry saber.

For the benefit of campers it is well to add that they are forbidden to cut or injure any growing timber. If they need

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fuel, they must use dead or fallen timber. Fires shall be lighted only when necessary, and must be completely extinguished when no longer required. As a proof of his temperate habits, Uncle Sam, in the person of the Secretary of the Interior, absolutely prohibits drinking-saloons or bar-rooms within the limits of the Park.

Persons who render themselves obnoxious by disorderly conduct or bad behavior, or who violate any of the rules, will be summarily removed from the Park, and will not be allowed to return without permission in writing from the Secretary of the Interior. The legal penalty for the violation of the regulations, in addition to the above, is severe, and any one proved guilty may be punished by a fine of $1,000 or imprisonment not exceeding two years, or both. It will be seen from this that the Government is very much in earnest in its efforts to so manage this most wonderful of national parks, the Yellowstone, that it will prove a garden spot for tourists and a safe haven for the wild animals of the country.

The Hungarian Immigrant

By Edward A. Steiner

NEARLY all Slavs are designated in America as Hungarians, which is so distasteful to them that it comes near being accepted as an insult. The Magyar, the ruling race of Hungary, has not the slightest relation to the Slavs, unless it be that of ruling a portion of them with a rather iron hand, and hating all of them proportionately. The Magyar's closest relation is to the Finns on the north and to the Turks in the east of Europe, and he is classed anthropologically as a Ugro-Finn. In his development he has leaned closely to the west, having a Germanic culture while still retaining a somewhat untamed Asiatic nature which manifests itself in nothing worse than a love of fast horses, fiery wine, and the wild music with which the gypsy bewitches him and draws the loose change out of the pockets of his tight-fitting trousers.

In that strange conglomerate of races and nationalities called the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, the Magyar has gained a dominant influence, and although numerically among the smallest, he has gained for himself the greatest privileges, and practically dictates the policy of the Empire. Upon those rich plains by the Danube and the Theis he has been a plowman who enjoyed the fruits of his toil as long as the marauding Turk would let him, furnishing wheat and corn for the rest of Europe and gaining not a little wealth since his arch-enemy has been driven back into peace. What he has made of his country in the last forty years of internal and external peace, how he has created for himself a capital which surpasses Vienna, and built factories and railroads unrivaled anywhere, forms a glorious page in the history of Europe.

From this comparatively wealthy country, from its freedom, from its broad prairies and its picturesque village life, there have come to America one hundred thousand men and women who are hard to wean from this Magyar land, but who, like all others, finally lose themselves in the National life, bringing into it fewer vices and more virtues than we ever connect with the Hungarian as he is superficially known among us. In New York, where the Ghetto ends, "Little Hungary" begins; rosy-cheeked maidens with bare arms akimbo stand in many a doorway while their swains court them on the street as they were in the habit of doing at home. Nearly every second house advertises "Sor-Bor" or "Palenka" for sale—the wine, beer, and whisky to which the Magyar is devoted; everywhere one hears the sound of the cymbal, that unpromising instrument which looks more like a kitchen utensil than anything else, but out of which the gypsy hammers sweet music. Little Hungary has but a small domain in New York; it ends abruptly with a restaurant in which gulyas, the favorite stew of the Magyar, lures the appetite; close by is Little Bohemia, and finally the big Germany which overshadows every other nationality.

The Hungary of New York, however, is only a stopping-place, and not sufficiently

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distinctive to give a good field for observation. In Cleveland some twenty thousand Magyars live together round about those giant steel-mills which send their black smoke like a pall over that much alive but very dirty city. Although street after street is occupied solely by them, I have not seen a house that shows neglect, and the battle with Cleveland dirt is waged fiercely here, judging by the clean doorsteps, window-panes, and white curtains which I saw at nearly every house. A large Catholic church, with its parochial school dedicated to St. Elizabeth, the Hungarian queen, shows that the Magyar does not neglect his religion. There are also a Greek Catholic church and a flourishing Protestant congregation. A weekly newspaper keeps the Hungarians in touch with one another and with the homeland, although it does not represent the Magyar spirit either by its contents or through the personality of its editor, who has no influence among his countrymen. I looked in vain for a Hungarian political "boss," for no party can claim these people exclusively. Social Democracy has made great gains among them, which is due in no small measure to the fact that they come from a comparatively wealthy country, from conditions which are not unbearable, and from something of ease and comfort, and so, finding the work in the iron-mills hard and grinding, they soon grow dissatisfied, which means—Social Democracy. A sort of pessimistic philosophy is developed, and the happy Hungarians grow melancholy, dejected, and homesick. They cling with rare tenacity to the fatherland, in which they have a just pride, and whenever the opportunity offers itself they show how much they love it. The erection of a monument to Louis Kossuth by men and women of the laboring classes, the enthusiasm with which it was dedicated, the festivities which recalled by speech, song, and dress the greatness of the man whose memory they honored, speak much for their idealistic and loyal love of country.

Of all foreigners the Hungarians are among the most tolerant toward the Jews, who live in large numbers in Hungary, while Hungarian Jews in Cleveland love to be known as Magyars and are treated as such by their fellow-countrymen. The Magyar's good nature is also shown by his treatment of the gypsies, who have followed him in large numbers to America and are really a sort of parasite, being supported by the easy-going and pleasure-loving Magyars, who dance the czardas to the fiery notes of fiddles and cymbals whose owners finally possess the largest portion of their patron's wages. Of the Hungarian gypsies it is said that when a boy is born among them the father holds before the child a penny and a violin; if he grasps the violin, he grows to be a musician; if the penny, a thief; but in most cases the child must have taken the two, for in Hungary as well as in America he is both with equal adeptness. One gypsy in Cleveland keeps a saloon which is a combination of the Hungarian "czarda" (inn) and its American namesake, the saloon, and it combines the evils of both institutions. The regular bar is supplemented by rickety chairs and tables and a clear space for the dancing floor without which the Hungarian czarda does not exist. On Saturday night, the soot of the week washed away, the Hungarian is found here in all his native glory. His mustache, twisted to the fineness of a needle-point, is his most prominent national characteristic, unless it be his small, shining eyes which barely escape looking out into the world from Mongolian openings. A small head and prominent cheek-bones are also characteristic, while the color of the hair is dark brown and black, the blond being almost unknown. He differentiates himself from his neighbor the Slav by his agility of both temper and limbs, and to see him dance a czardas, to hear him sing it and the gypsy play it, is as good as seeing that other acrobatic performance, a circus. When the gypsy innkeeper knows that his guests have pay-day money in their pockets, he has ready a band of gypsies, who look shabby enough, and very unpromising from an artistic standpoint; the leader, who plays the first violin, tunes it with remarkable care and tenderness, the second violin scrapes a few hoarse notes after him, the bass-viol comes in grudgingly, and the cymbal-player exercises his fingers by beating cotton-wrapped sticks over the strings of his strange instrument. One patriotic youth, who has had just enough liquid fire poured into him, now lifts his voice and sings a song of the puszta (the

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Hungarian prairie), of the horses and cattle which graze upon it, and of the buxom maiden who draws water from the village well. Slowly, pathetically, almost painfully melancholy, the notes ring out as if the singer were bewailing some great loss; the musicians follow upon their instruments as sorrowful mourners a hearse; but all at once the measure becomes brisk and the notes jubilant; the singer and the musicians are caught as by a fever, faster and faster the bows fly over the strings, the cymbal is beaten furiously, and the bass-viol seems in a roaring rage.

Sunday morning finds the dancers sobered and reverent on the way to church, most of them going to the Roman Catholic church, in which a zealous priest blesses, but is not blessed by, them. Seldom have I found among foreigners such frank criticism of the priest and yet such loyalty to the Church. The Hungarian Catholic is not narrow; he is much more liberal than the Slav or the German Austrian, and a bigoted priest may hold him to the Church but will not win him to himself. It is always hard to judge of a priest or preacher from the reports of disgruntled members of his flock, but the Catholics seldom speak ill of their shepherd unless there is much hard truth to tell. The following, which I heard from trustworthy sources, is characteristic. At a meeting of one of the lodges the motion was made to have a mass said on a certain memorial day; the priest arose to second the motion, and said, "We have two kinds of mass, the five dollar and the ten-dollar one, and I would not advise you to have the cheap one." True or untrue, the fact remains that this priest has built a fine church and a magnificent parochial school. He is a good financier, and I doubt not that he is such for the glory of his Church and not for his own enrichment; I can testify to the fact that he has done much good, that he has quieted much turbulence, that he is not a friend of strong drink, and that he is a narrow but exceedingly careful shepherd of his flock.

The Greek Catholic priest in Cleveland was driven from the church by his independent parishioners, who found him not only a good financier but a bad man, a "peddler in holy goods," as they called him, who was ready to dispense his blessing to man and beast for money, large or small, or for a drink more often large than small. The Protestant church is shepherded by a young man from the Oberlin Theological Seminary, who is in touch with the American life and its interpretation of the Christian Church and ministry.

The Protestant Hungarian is, as a rule, better educated, morally on a higher level, and in America more quickly assimilated than his Catholic brother. In Hungary this has well-defined causes. First, splendidly equipped Protestant ministers, not a few of them graduates of English and Scotch universities and imbued by the Puritan spirit of those countries. Second, a Protestant theology of the Calvinistic type, which, harsh and hard as it is, makes everywhere strong men and women, and which in Hungary distinguishes the Calvinistic communities from the Catholic by a severer philosophy of life and a much more moral conduct. The third cause may in the eyes of some persons be the most real one. Wherever a religious community is in the minority and is or has been severely persecuted, it becomes thrifty and highly moral. Whatever the reason, the fact exists and is a pleasant one to chronicle. Not so pleasant is the fact that, in common with all foreigners, the Magyar presents a serious religious problem. Neither church, priest, nor preacher holds authority over him very long after he reaches these shores. He rebels against, loses interest in, and finally ceases to support his church; neglect not seldom ends in hate, and a rude atheism is a common disease among these people. Besides this, it is not easy to find enough and suitable priests and preachers for these foreigners, as slight differences in language call for different pastors, and in Cleveland alone the Church could use advantageously men of twenty nationalities of whose existence the average man has scarcely any idea. The imported pastor is almost always in discord with his congregation, which is almost always in accord with the freer American spirit and cannot be treated as he treated his people in Hungary or Poland. Many, perhaps most, of the pastors who are educated abroad have no sympathy with the democratic spirit of our

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country, and they frequently complain of its effect upon their authority. I met one such priest on his way back to Europe; he was leaving his work because, as he said, "I could find nobody in my parish to black my boots, for everybody considered himself as good as I am. In the old country my people would stop on the street and kiss my hand, but here the children say, 'Hello, Father,' and go on their way." The ministers trained in America are few, and these are yet young and inexperienced.

The English Protestant churches are not seriously concerned about this growing problem, the solution of which does not consist only in building missions and paying money into the treasury, but also in presenting to these foreigners a living, acting, and blessing Christ, who, when uplifted, draws all men unto him. It is good to be able to say of people who come to a strange country that they maintain their integrity, and this may be said of the Hungarian. He is, as a rule, honest, easily imposed upon, somewhat quarrelsome, addicted to drink, not so industrious as the Slav but much more intelligent, comprehending more easily and assimilating more quickly. He is not a problem but a lesson. Crossing the ocean in December on the Red Star Line steamer Vaterland, I found among the mixture of steerage passengers over two hundred Magyars, or, as we more exactly call them, Hungarians. I was eager to know what they were carrying home to their native country after years of living with us, and I found that many of them seemed completely untouched by the American life. Their language, spoken by but a few people in Europe, is almost unknown in America, and the man without a language is almost always "the man without a country." If anything, these poor creatures seemed worse than when they came, for many of them had failed and were broken in spirit. Some whose tongues had become loosened were aware of the larger life, and were full of the praises of America. They were going back to look again upon the village in which they were born, in which they made whistles from the hanging willows by the creek, where they chased the pigs into the mud-puddles, where they lived their small and simple life, and to which they were now returning as traveled men. They had crossed the ocean, seen miles of earth, had struggled with wind and weather, felt freedom's breezes blow, and had grown mightily. Brain, heart, and soul had developed, or perhaps only changed, but even change is experience, if not always life and growth. It was good to talk to these men who had "arrived," who saw things as we see them and felt them as we feel them, and who carried American flags in their pockets to show to their friends and gloried in their American citizenship. "I love the old country," said one of them, "but I love America more. Stay in Hungary? Oh, no! I do not even want to die there, but if I do, I want them to wrap me in this shroud," and he pulled out of his pocket the Stars and Stripes.

But not all of them are so idealistic; some love America for the money they made, some for the social position it gave them, many of them for the chance their children will have to grow into their full heritage as men and women; but, whatever the cause, it is good to feel that so many of these foreigners learn to love their adopted country. It was interesting also to find that these ten or twelve nationalities which were represented in the steerage of the Vaterland were nearly all closely related, but could not understand one another in their native language. There were Slovaks, Serbs, Rumanians, Poles, and Bohemians, all of them more or less of Slavic origin, and yet when they wished to speak to one another they had to use the English tongue. In that conglomerate of races and nationalities, in which language was an iron wall, it was good to hear "American talk," as they call it, and find it a binding link. They sang as only these children of nature can sing. A Serbian bard sang of his heroes who fought the Turk, the Magyar sang of love and wine, of horses and red cattle, the Jew chanted the Psalms of David and called God down to earth because he was poor and needy, the Frenchman sang the martial "Marseillaise," and the German the stirring notes of "Die Wacht am Rhein," and as they sang and the voices mingled the sound brought discord and confusion to the ear and to the heart also, for these songs had in them the thunder of war and the spirit of enmity. In the midst of this uproar a Hungarian boy, who came

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from the mines of Pennsylvania, began to sing, "My Country, 'tis of thee, sweet land of liberty." Not many voices joined in the strange tune, but there arose a deep and listening silence, a prophecy of peace and of the final consummation of the dream of seers and prophets—the brotherhood of man.

One of the Family

By Alice Ward Bailey

IT was a pleasant room, with wide window-seats and many cushions, pictures everywhere, and souvenirs of travel, but not handsome, not formal, as one's best room should be. So thought Aunt Susan Symington as she stood looking about her. She had hoped Elizabeth would have things different as Sanford Grey made more money and Katharine and Stuart grew older, but here she was, married ten years and if anything less "particular" than in her girlhood. The reflection brought a sigh.

"You have no cause to sigh; I'm the one," said a voice behind her, and there stood Elizabeth herself.

"You!" exclaimed Aunt Susan, with a start. "What has happened?"

"Nancy," was the laconic reply, as Elizabeth seated herself and folded her hands in her lap. "She won't let me say a word."

"She never would," retorted Miss Symington, dryly. "But then you didn't use to try. I don't see why you should begin now."

"Katharine will be nine years old to-morrow," said Elizabeth, "and I have decided that one young lady is enough in the house. Besides, you've stirred my conscience."

Aunt Susan looked up inquiringly over her spectacles.

"You've impressed it upon me that I'm not doing my duty by Nancy. I've always taken her as a joke," said Elizabeth, calmly. "It was very wrong."

"It was wrong," said Aunt Susan, warmly. "Now, the first night after I came, do you know what that girl did?"

"You strike," said Elizabeth, "the key to the situation. You see, she never was 'that girl' to me. She was—Nancy."

"Do you know what she did?" repeated Miss Symington. "She brought in the dining-room lamp turned 'way down, and told you not to turn it up till the chimney was dry—she'd just washed it. And you and the children sat there and *giggled* in the dark!"

"We do—'giggle'—a good deal," said Elizabeth, apologetically.

"Moreover," said Aunt Susan, severely, "you've allowed her to enter into the conversation of the family while she was waiting on the table. She doesn't do it as much as she did."

"The conversation isn't as interesting," said Elizabeth, mischievously.

"And I caught her in *your place* drinking tea *out of your cup* the other night," finished Aunt Susan.

"She must like me pretty well," mused Elizabeth.

Aunt Susan drew out a length of thread and bit it off with the precision of an Atropos.

"You see," said Elizabeth, "two years ago, when Sanford was traveling and both the children were down with the measles, Nancy and I ran the hospital together, bathed and fed the children together, sometimes we ate together. She found herself in the bosom of the family, and, hard as it was, she liked it. She doesn't like being poked out."

Elizabeth whisked off to another room, as she had a way of doing when she did not care to be answered. "Some 'Aunt Susan' will be all right in this, but all 'Aunt Susan' will be as bad as all 'Elizabeth,'" she said to herself.

Not long afterwards Mrs. Bolton called—Mrs. Isaiah Bolton, President of the Woman's Club and author of "The Complete Housewife." "I'll ask her about it," decided Elizabeth.

"Dear Mrs. Bolton," she began earnestly, after the preliminary questions and answers which belong to a call as "responses" do to the Episcopal service.

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"Dear Mrs. Bolton, what *do* you do when your cook gets obstreperous?"

"I keep out of her way," returned Mrs. Bolton, easily.

"But if there are orders—"

"I don't give them. I let her do as she pleases until she is tired of the responsibility."

"But—don't you think—isn't that an—*evasion?*"

"Of course. That is why I do it. My dear, there are enough things which we cannot evade. We must dodge where we can." And Mrs. Bolton dodged. "I wanted to ask you," she said, graciously, "what you think of putting in Miss Comstock as corresponding secretary for the Club?"

"Admirable," exclaimed Elizabeth, and spoke no more of Nancy.

While Mrs. Bolton was saying her farewells, Mrs. Clark called. She had on a new picture hat which became her, and she took her seat in range of the mirror where she could study the effects.

"I'm delighted that you approve," she said, in reply to Elizabeth's compliments. "I suppose Bridget will have one as near like it as possible before the month is out, but I'll have a chance to wear it a few times. How do I get on with Bridget? Finely. I do as you do with Nancy. I make an intimate friend of her."

Mrs. Clark showed her dimples.

Elizabeth thoughtfully rubbed her chin. "Nancy and I are not as intimate as we were," she said, soberly.

"You're not?" cried Mrs. Clark. "Do you think they take advantage?"

"I think *we* do," was the unexpected reply.

Mrs. Clark opened her eyes. "That's just what my husband says," she cried. "He declares that I ask Bridget to do things I wouldn't think of asking if we were not on such good terms, and that some day she'll 'kick,' as he expresses it. Has Nancy? Why, I thought Nancy would stand anything. How did it happen? What began it?"

"I began it," Mrs. Grey confessed. "She didn't complain about doing things, but she would take her own time and way, and I objected."

"How is she, now?" inquired the visitor, manifesting the acute interest of one who sees destiny looming large on her own horizon.

"She's pretty bad," was the reply.

"How do you think it'll end?" asked Mrs. Clark in awed tones.

"I'm afraid," said Elizabeth sorrowfully, "she'll have to go. I'm afraid she'll want to, when she finds she can't have her own way. And she has 'shown out,' you see."

"Can't you make her think you haven't noticed?"

"Only by letting her have her own way more than ever and acting as if I were the one to blame."

"Can't you train her? Is she impudent? If she has commenced *that*, of course you can't stand it——I *must* go. I promised to meet Mr. Clark at his office at twelve. Don't be discouraged. Perhaps you'd like a Pole. The Bridgmans have one."

"I know they have," said Elizabeth, without enthusiasm.

"You know you always *do* have to put up with something," said Mrs. Clark, lightly. "My friends ask, 'Is Bridget a good cook?' 'Not very,' I say. 'Is she a good laundress?' they ask. 'I put out most of it,' I tell them. 'Well,' they say, 'she probably gives exceptionally good service.' But she doesn't. It's only that she's so *comfortable*."

"Nancy *was*," sighed Mrs. Grey.

"I'm sorry for you," said the visitor, rising. "But, then, you'll get along. You have your aunt, and Katharine is old enough to help. How old is Katharine?"

"Katharine will be nine to-morrow."

"And Stuart?"

"Stuart is five. Oh, yes. I shall get along."

"Cheer up!" called the visitor, over her shoulder, as she descended the steps.

"It isn't the same thing at all to her," thought Elizabeth, disconsolately. "She's had a dozen girls since Nancy came to me." Was this the better way, she wondered, to let them come and go and not to care?

She glanced up at Nancy's ample figure as it bent over her at dinner, touched anew by its bovine majesty. "How she did shake her horns at me when I tried to drive her out of her clover pasture!" she thought. "There's no other way,

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though, if she stays; and I want no one else. I want her—*as* I want her."

"Nancy!" she said, by way of continuing the course of discipline upon which she had entered. "You may have breakfast at seven hereafter. Set the alarm for six."

Nancy snorted. Set the alarm, indeed! For more than a year her morning summons had been a rap on the wall with the heel of Mrs. Grey's slipper—unless Mr. Grey was at home; then Mrs. Grey slid into her dressing-gown and stole around to Nancy's door.

One quick glance passed between the two, and Nancy countered.

"We're out of flour," she said, grimly, "an' we'll need sugar by to-morrow. There's only tea enough for once more. An' I thought I'd ask you before I changed the tablecloth if I'd put on that darned one s' long's there's comp'ny."

Elizabeth winced, but increased her "manner."

"I'll order flour and sugar the first thing in the morning," she said, grandly. "And tea—that tea's gone pretty fast, Nancy. You'll find plenty of tablecloths in the bottom drawer in the china-closet."

"There ain't but one the right length," returned the triumphant Nancy, "an' that's the one I was tellin' you of."

"I'll see about some, immediately," said her mistress, clutching at her vanishing dignity. "Nancy, you have on a very dirty apron." Nancy flounced out of the room. The trumpet had sounded; the interchange of hostilities had begun.

On neither side was there hesitation or regret. Nancy was "Old Country born," and Elizabeth herself came of fighting stock. All that day Nancy sang in an aggressively loud voice over her work and banged the kitchen door as she went to and fro. On her part, Elizabeth ceased to "make things easy" and to inquire after Nancy's lame feet.

War in its initial stages is more or less exhilarating, especially when it occurs between friends. The escape from an overclose intimacy brings a sense of freedom. The desire to retaliate for wrongs, real or fancied, gives a glow, adds an artificial strength. After liking what some one else likes and doing what some one else pleases, it is a relief to like and do the contrary. Elizabeth even indulged in a little mild braggadocio to her aunt.

"I'll soon have her in hand," she said, gayly. "She had rather gotten beyond me, but she'll come down."

Likewise Nancy made light of what had occurred. "It's that old maid's doin's," she said to herself. "Mis' Grey's all right when she's let alone. Only she's a right to keep out o' the kitchen."

But Elizabeth did not keep out of the kitchen and Nancy did not "come down"—in truth, she did not dream that this was expected of her. She merely knew that one who had been near and warm had become distant and cold as well as annoying, and, not to be outdone, she too grew distant and cold and annoying.

The entire feminine portion of the household stiffened, for Katharine naturally patterned after her mother, and Miss Symington was only too glad of an opportunity to act as she felt. Stuart alone, being a man—in embryo—ignored conditions and enjoyed himself.

He strolled out into the kitchen, his chubby face wreathed in smiles.

"Nanthy," he began, confidently, "I want to thee your thircuth."

Although Stuart was five, he retained his lisp. Only a heart of adamant could resist it, but Nancy's was a heart of adamant just then.

"I haven't any circus," she said, crossly.

"Yeth you have," he insisted. "Up in your room. I want to thee the man who turns around tho," and he did his futile best to produce a semblance of the contortionist. "You thaid they'd picked the bones out of him."

"I don't know what you're talking about," said Nancy, disagreeably.

She did know, and she wanted to run up to her room and get the picture; she wanted to take the adorable little fellow in her arms and squeeze delicious laughter out of him—but she wouldn't, no, indeed; if Mrs. Grey could be "mean," Nancy could.

"I won't have you bothering me while I'm at work," she said to the boy. "Run along and play."

Stuart sidled towards the door, his round eyes fixed upon her face. Nancy felt them, although she looked another

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way, and she charged up another uncomfortable sensation to Mrs. Grey's account.

Stuart did not come again, but there were other opportunities to "get even." She had not lived side by side with her mistress for nearly four years without learning somewhat of that lady's idiosyncrasies. While Mrs. Grey sifted Nancy, Nancy sifted Mrs. Grey. There was one beautiful result—the house was kept as it had never been kept before. Cleanliness and order prevailed. The meals were well cooked and admirably served. Elizabeth congratulated herself upon having gained so much, nor questioned if the effort paid.

At the end of the week Sanford Grey came home. He knew as soon as he opened the front door that something had happened. "It's as clean as a funeral," he said, sniffing suspiciously; and later, "Bess and the children are at the mercy of their best clothes, and Miss Symington smiles like 'the cat that has eaten the canary'—and Nancy—*Nancy has nothing to say!*"

This gave him a clue. "Bess has been attending another course of lectures on Domestic Science," he decided. "I wish she'd let well enough alone." He taxed her with it that night after the children had gone to bed and Miss Symington was deep in the magazines.

"If you don't take that look of the Perfect Housekeeper off your face," he added, "I'll go away again. It is almost as bad as the look of the Professional Bargain-hunter. Come back to your nice old easy-going ways, or I won't stay."

"Am I different?" she inquired, sensitively. "I didn't know I was different."

Aunt Susan looked up over her spectacles. Her glance said plainly, "Why don't you tell him?" She didn't know—how could a spinster know that one must never tell one's husband servant-girl troubles?

"I know I'm stupid," she said, brightly.

"No, you're not," he answered. "I wish you were. I'd have more hope of you."

Evidently Bess did not intend to tell him. And there was something very much out of the way with Nancy; the girl looked as if she'd had a fit of sickness. Women always did expect too much of their help. He essayed a stratagem.

"I've been telling John Southey about Nancy's getting up and building fires in the middle of the night when the children were sick. He said he never heard anything like it; he'd never had a girl in all the years he'd kept house that would do such a thing."

Not a word replied Elizabeth.

"I told him how she takes care of the furnace and does all sorts of things 'most any one would leave for a man. He thinks we have a very valuable girl."

"Sometimes," said Elizabeth, slowly, "I think she is worth her weight in gold. Again I would let her go for what she breaks and eats."

"I told him it was all your doing," said Sanford, ignoring the interruption; "that you make her feel that she is one of us, that our interests are hers. He wished his wife could talk with you."

"I should be very glad to hear what she has to say," said Elizabeth, politely, but Sanford detected a different ring in her voice, and fell asleep, content in the consciousness of having sown good seed.

While he slept, however, the enemy sowed tares, in another corner of the garden.

"Ye ain't goin' now, sure," cried Mary Daly, when Nancy commenced at ten o'clock to put on her things. "Ye've been onaisy all the avenin'. What's atin' ye, onyway?"

"They're havin' breakfast earlier at the house," returned Nancy, "an' I must be abed."

"They? Who's they? Don't ye get breakfast any more?"

"Course I get breakfast," replied Nancy.

"Well, thin, they'll have it when ye get it, won't they?"

Nancy sat down.

"I notice ye ain't sayin' so much about 'our' house an' 'our' children," continued Mary, teasingly. "Have ye had a divoorce?"

But Nancy was in no mood for pleasantries; she made no reply.

"Take another cup o' tay," pursued Mary, insinuatingly. "This ain't none of yer thirty-five-cent stuff."

"Who's tay is?" demanded Nancy.

"Yer folkses. I seen it on the paper."

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"Ye see no such a thing," returned Nancy, angrily. "It's seventy-five."

"Have ye the paper?" asked Mary, putting in more sugar and stirring vigorously. "Take a good look at it when you go home."

"I'm going now," said Nancy, rising. "Come over, when you've nothin' better."

"I will," said Mary, cheerfully. She had longed for months to "take Nancy Cassidy down a peg." Nancy had put on such airs, on account of being "intimate" with her lady. If Nancy hadn't been a "gonus" she would have known how little *that* amounted to. "Seventy-five cents!" she muttered, tossing the contents of her cup, thick with sugar, into the sink, and turning on the water to wash it down. "I've given her somethin' to chew on."

She had. All the way home Nancy rolled the bitter cud. Could it be that Mrs. Grey was buying poor tea for the kitchen? Early in her service at Mrs. Grey's the subject of "treating" had come up for discussion, and Mrs. Grey had demurred at Nancy's liberality.

"Sure, they all know ye're as open-handed as the day," had been Nancy's wily reply. "They'll think I'm the stingy wan."

Mrs. Grey had laughed and shrugged her shoulders and had let the matter go. But of late she had made tea on her own little table in the library, for those who drank it, and Nancy had had hers by herself.

The paper was still on the last package, stuffed into the canister. Nancy could hardly wait to pull it out and carry it to the light. Suspicion and distrust, forever latent in the very relation of the employed to the employer, stirred like snakes in her breast. "What is it?" she whispered. "It's seventy-five. No, 'tain't; they've changed it, they've put a seven over the three!"

She tasted a dry leaf and spit it out resentfully. "They were awful smart," she sneered, "an' I—what a granehorn! I'll show 'em. I'll get square with 'em."

The next day she reserved the first "drawing" of coffee for herself and the first skim of cream. Elizabeth saw her through the open door. She had come down early prepared for an armistice. She said nothing; but she did not stint the coffee or the cream; and just before she left the dining-room she poured the contents of the water-pitcher into the coffee-pot, and replenished the cream-jug from the milk-pitcher. "I didn't think I'd ever come to that," she said, as she did it.

She went out into the kitchen an hour later, banners flying, gun to shoulder; but she found the enemy prepared. Her eyes fell before the bold gaze they encountered. Something came up from below and looked out at her, something she had not seen before. The nature of the contest had changed. It was no longer the wrenching apart of two who had been friends and who still feel the drawing of old ties, it was the antagonism of those who realize that they have been betrayed into a false position. The girl had not been impudent before, that was plain. She had merely flung out against restraint. Now the veiled insolence of her manner was intolerable. Class against class they met now, not in the air where the superior combatant meant to keep the battle, but on the ground where the inferior always ends it. "Has she overheard? Does she know that Mrs. Clark sent a girl here yesterday?" went through Elizabeth's brain, while she faltered out her orders. Nancy made no reply. Her silence was eloquent of mud-flinging.

"And to think how I've taken her to my heart," panted Elizabeth, in the safety of her own room. "How I've interested myself in everything that concerns her, her dress, her love affairs, her health! She must go. *She must go.* I will not have her here. She must go, as soon as I can find some one to take her place."

Left in command of the field, Nancy exulted and mourned by turns. "She couldn't look me in the eye," she said to herself. "I'm enough for her—she was such a nice lady, what's come over her, I dunno! She'll hunt long before she'll find a girl to do what I've done. But I'll give her a dacint notice, while I'm lookin' around. I'm goin'—but I'll take me time."

Each reckoned without the other and without the provocations sure to arise. It is not in the nature of a duel to permit deliberation. The fury of a regiment is more or less disseminated; the fury of one is the discharge at the electrode's

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point. It was inevitable that Elizabeth should walk out into the kitchen, after resolving not to go near the place again that day, and, actuated by she never knew what impulse, lift the lid of the stove, where Nancy with equal fatuousness was burning the pieces of bread left from the table. And then—the thing was done!

"So that is why we never have crumbs," cried Elizabeth, with fine irony.

"I gives me notice!" cried Nancy. "I'm sick an' tired of you follerin' me up as you've done lately."

"Very well," returned her mistress. "You can go any time, Nancy."

"Then I'll go now," shouted the girl. "I'd give a respectable notice if I'd been treated respectable, but I ain't. I'll go now."

She wrung the suds from her hands and wiped them on the dish-towel.

"I'll go now," she repeated, tremulously. "An' it'll be long before you'll find a girl to serve you as faithful as I've done."

With dignified demeanor she walked slowly out of the kitchen and climbed the stairs leading to her room. Elizabeth stood where she was, for some seconds, listening to the retreating footsteps. At last she too withdrew and went to her own part of the house.

Nancy had waited outside the door of her room. She had thought that her mistress would follow her. When she heard that light footfall cross the kitchen floor and pass along the hall, she pulled open the door fiercely, and entered her room.

It met her with the sweet graciousness of the woman who had planned it for her comfort. There were muslin curtains at the window, white covers on the tables, a rug before the bed. "I hope you will be happy here," Mrs. Grey had said the night she came. She had been happy, happier than she would ever be again.

How could things be so different?

There were Christmas and birthday gifts about her which told of the "good feeling" which had been; a picture of Stuart in his first trousers, one of Katharine dressed in fancy costume for a children's party; there were toilet articles in silver—"It does seem ridiculous," Mrs. Grey had said to Mrs. Clark, "to give her such things, but what can you do? She wants them, and they were selling for fifty cents apiece at Tracy's." Nancy wiped her eyes as she looked at the nail-file and the shoe-horn and the cold-cream jar.

"Why didn't she come an' talk to me like she useter?" she sobbed, "an' not stand off an' act so! P'r'aps she's got another girl in mind." Sudden jealousy seized her for her possible successor. "Pretty much everythin's mine," she muttered. Those were her own pictures on the walls, her own knots of ribbon and bunches of artificial flowers. Her heart ached at the thought of dismantling the place familiarity had made so dear.

The girl in the kitchen is a bird of passage, but not from choice. Often she will remain in a hard place, amid unpleasant surroundings, rather than risk new ways and the criticism of strangers. And this place was not hard or unpleasant, it was home.

"She made so much o' me," moaned the girl. "She's a right to come to me now and talk it over. I'd 'a' done anything in the world for her. I would now. Huh, what does she care? She is like the rest of 'em. Prob'bly she's got a girl all engaged. Prob'bly she'd 'a' fired me if I hadn't give notice. That's the way they all do. She is just like the rest of 'em." She clenched her fist and lifted it against all those who hire. "I hate 'em," she cried. "I hate 'em!"

In the opposite corner of the house Elizabeth sat motionless, her chin upon her hand, her elbow on her knee, until she heard the children come in from school. Miss Symington followed, returning from the Monday Morning Bible Lecture. It was time for luncheon. She hurried into the kitchen. Nancy had gone. The kitchen stove was cold.

"That's the way they do, the best of them," said Miss Symington, cheerfully. "I knew you'd find her out sooner or later."

"It was she who found me out," said Elizabeth, gravely. "I could never deceive her again."

Miss Symington studied her niece's face. "I suppose that is a joke," she said, seriously.

"No, it passed beyond a joke some time ago," said Elizabeth. "Stuart, run up to mamma's room and bring down the other chafing-dish. We'll see what we can do about luncheon."

Mr. Grey came in while they were

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getting things ready, and took his turn, preparing a dish he had seen John Southey's wife make.

"So Nancy's gone!" he ejaculated, and gave a long, low whistle. "Well, I must say I'm surprised. And she gave notice herself? I didn't think any one could club her away.—Stuart, my boy, give me some hot plates."

Nothing more was said on the subject. Luncheon went off in gay, picnic fashion. Katharine, in a long gingham apron which came down below her short skirts, washed the dishes while her mother and Aunt Susan took an account of the larder. Mr. Grey and Stuart "carried away."

"We'll all go out to dinner," announced Mr. Grey. "And, Bess, I have tickets for the opera to-night, if you and Aunt Susan would like to go."

"I detest opera," said Aunt Susan, promptly. "I'll stay with the children."

"It's a star cast," said her nephew-in-law.

"I don't care if it's sun, moon, and stars," replied Aunt Susan, recklessly. "I'd rather go to bed. Elizabeth looks more fit for bed than to go out, but I suppose she'll forget her troubles listening to the music."

Elizabeth smiled faintly. Would she ever forget the occurrences of the past few hours? As to finding in music a Siren's voice to divert and soothe—every penetrating note reached the sore spot in her heart. So still she sat and with such white cheeks that Sanford touched her to make her look at him. He saw then that her eyes were full of tears.

"I am surprised at you," he said, when they were again at home and he was stooping to unfasten her cloak. "An old opera-goer like you crying over the Damnation of Faust!"

"It wasn't that," she answered, breathlessly. "It was the Damnation of Nancy—just as inevitable, just as gradual, just as terrible!"

"Poor little woman!" he exclaimed, seating himself in the big smoking-chair and drawing her to his knee. "You're all worn out with this business. Don't be so tragic."

"It *is* tragic!" she cried. "They may talk of the Tragedy of Sex—it isn't any bigger than the Tragedy of Service. You come so near, you are so tied up together, so interdependent. You can't get away! And there is all that strain of employment, of working for wage; and if you try to make it up to a girl, that is a mistake—you can't be too kind.

"And she watches so, she knows all your weaknesses! You have to be perfect. She does as you do, only worse. We think we impress them by our manners, we think they do not see behind it. We think we can keep them on a leash and they will do as we please—why should they? Why should they be humble? Why should we be proud? And how will it be settled at the Last Day, tell me that?"

"I can't tell you, dear," said Sanford, soberly.

Leavening the Nation[1]

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, who has not only a scholar's knowledge of the West but a practical knowledge of the American people of all sections as few if any other men have, has paid tribute in at least two public addresses to the part which missionaries have had in the subjugation of the North American continent to civilization and to the construction of the Nation. "It is such missionary work," he has declared, "that prevents the pioneers from sinking perilously near the level of the savagery against which they contend. Without it the conquest of this continent would have had little but an animal side. . . . Because of it, deep beneath and through the National character, there runs that power of firm adherence to a lofty ideal upon which the safety of the Nation will ultimately depend." That this is a sound view no one who has studied historically the forces which have produced the United States can deny. The home missionary, who to many people is hardly other than a man with a wife and several children somewhere out West, to whom a barrel full of odds and ends is sent, and from whom is received a letter full of gratitude and accounts of prayer-meetings, is in reality

[1] *Leavening the Nation*. By Joseph B. Clark, D.D. The Baker & Taylor Company, New York.

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one of the most dominant agents in the making of history that the world has ever known. Compared with the settlement and civilization of Europe the spread of civilization over the territory which now comprises the United States has been startling in its swiftness. No armies ever achieved so thorough or so speedy a triumph as the American pioneers did. And among the pioneers none were more courageous, none were more steadfast, and none more in earnest, or, on the whole, more successful in attaining their purposes, than the men who went, not for the sake of extracting wealth from the soil, but for the sake of establishing righteousness in the new communities. In the midst of greed, or what may at best be called the spirit of acquisitiveness, they injected the spirit that seeks not to get but to give, the saving spirit of service, the leaven of the Nation.

It is from the point of view which enables one to see these missionaries not merely as propagandists but as makers of a nation that Dr. Clark has written his account of their activities. "Leavening the Nation" belongs to missionary literature; but it belongs just as truly among books on American history.

As a specific instance of this characteristic of the book we select Dr. Clark's treatment of the Northwest Territory. He describes its position and briefly recalls the mode of its settlement. Situated so as to be in comparatively easy communication with States so widely different in character of population as New York and Kentucky; subject to the Ordinance of 1787, which not only shut out slavery from the Territory, but also created a National sentiment that was quite as cohesive in its power as the Constitution itself; a natural highway to the further West and therefore a region inviting the incoming foreigners, especially the Teutons and Scandinavians; a natural territorial unit by virtue of the Great Lakes, which make the distribution of its population easy—the Northwest Territory was inevitably, as Dr. Clark says, "the recruiting-ground for the gathering of those forces which were destined to win and subdue the greater and the then unknown West," as well as the field in which took place the conflict of principles (personified in Lincoln and Douglas) which resulted in making of the United States in fact a Nation. With the territory thus described, the missionary activity that took place within its borders necessarily assumes quite other than merely ecclesiastical or denominational significance; it is seen rather to be momentous in its influence on National destiny. In similar fashion, New England, the early West, the Louisiana Purchase, the Southern Belt, the Mexican Cession, and Alaska and the West Indies are considered. The order is, first the region, its settlement and its historic relation to the Nation, then the part which missionary activity has had in creating its character.

Certain conclusions are very plainly to be drawn from this volume. One is the unifying effect which the missionary spirit has often had upon the churches. This finds frequent illustration. The "Plan of Union," by which Presbyterians and Congregationalists pooled their missionary contributions, so to speak, for the benefit of churches of both orders; the United Domestic Missionary Society of New York, an early federation of mainly the Presbyterian and Reformed Churches; the American Home Missionary Society, whose membership included four denominations, Presbyterian, Associate Reformed, Reformed, and Congregational; and the comparatively recent and very efficient Interdenominational Comity Commission of Maine, by which the Baptists, Congregationalists, Free Baptists, and Methodists have co-operated in promoting economy of effort and diminution of rivalry in establishing new churches or reviving churches that are decadent—these are all cases in point. Perhaps, however, the most picturesque incident illustrative of the federating influence of missionary work in a new country is told of the settlement of Michigan, where the educational system was built upon the plans and efforts of four home missionaries—a Methodist, a Roman Catholic, a Presbyterian, and a Congregationalist. The Methodist and the Roman Catholic drew up an act to establish a university to which they gave the name (evidently manufactured from the names of their respective communions) "Catholepistemiad!" In frankness, however, it ought to be recorded that the sectarian rivalry, which Dr. Clark emphatically calls "denominational enterprise," that flourished especially in Minnesota seems to have

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produced results as favorable as the more amicable policy of Michigan, so far as church statistics indicate.

Another conclusion to be drawn from this volume is that home missionaries are engaged in as picturesque and complicated an adventure as was ever undertaken. Their business is to be the advocates of Christian civilization in a growing Christian nation; and yet it falls to their lot to encounter as rank lawlessness and as silly superstitions as confront the missionary in foreign lands. No romancer, for instance, could conceive any situation more extraordinary than that which exists in our own country, where Christian forces are facing such an artificial heathenism as the religion and hierarchy of the Mormons.

The third conclusion, and the last we shall mention, is one which Dr. Clark explicitly and clearly draws—that with the settlement of the country home missionary activity is not to cease; for the enemy has shifted his ground; he is no longer threatening the safety of the Nation in the materialism of the frontier; he is rather gathering his forces among the vast hordes of immigrants that are crowding into the big cities. It is there that the armies which do battle in the name of the Son of God will find in the future the most important field of conflict.

The book has its defects. Names which have only professional interest might well have been more generally relegated to foot-notes. Congregationalists occupy more than their share of attention. Statistics quoted in evidence of social changes are sometimes really of more ecclesiastical than social significance. In view, however, of the author's historical sources, these very defects, because of their comparative slightness, indicate a wholesome and commendable restraint.

Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

American Government: A Text-Book for Secondary Schools. By Roscoe Lewis Ashley. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 356 pages. $1, net.

A well-planned text-book for the secondary schools. The affairs of local, State, and National governments are presented in the right perspective, the former occupying the foreground in this volume as they do in the actual life of most citizens. Pending measures of reform, such as public control of monopolies, direct primaries, and direct legislation, are dealt with without dogmatism—the pros and cons being presented so that the student may comprehend both sides.

Babel and Bible: Two Lectures on the Significance of Assyriological Research for Religion: Embodying also the Most Important Criticisms and the Author's Replies. By Dr. Friedrich Delitzsch. Translated from the German by Thomas J. McCormack and W. H. Carruth. Illustrated. The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago. 6×9½ in. 167 pages. 75c.

These lectures have already appeared in another form and have been reviewed by us. Comments on the lectures, together with the Kaiser's letter, are here included, and Professor Delitzsch's reply to his critics. It is evident that this eminent Assyriologist is not a leader in religious thought. He is a type of those who have not yet adjusted their theology to their increased knowledge of facts.

Defending the Bank. By Edward S. Van Zile. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 313 pages. $1, net.

A spirited young folks' story, telling how two boys and a girl defeated a band of burglars. It is not quite probable in all points, but it is certainly readable and has fun as well as excitement.

Exact Science of Health Based upon Life's Great Law. By Robert Walter, M.D. The Edgar S. Werner Publishing Co., New York. 6½×10 in. 302 pages. $2.

Failure of Jesus and His Triumph (The): Silhouettes Touching the Story of the Unfolding of the Son of God in the Son of Man. By Frater Occidentalis. The Argus Press, Red Wing, Minn. 5½×7 in. 124 pages. $1.

The meditations and exclamations of a modern mystic. His forceful style is disfigured by trivial expressions in the midst of passages that are elevated and even poetical in diction. The typography of the book as well as its style smacks of Elbert Hubbard, though it is in places careless. What is here said, however, is worth saying. Much of it is very suggestive. For instance, the first temptation of Christ is interpreted as a temptation to make his ministry a purely material one, to deal with starvation of the body rather than with that of the soul, to "give to mankind the blessings of a leisure class." The author finds evangelical faith rational though tested by science and philosophy. He is, unfortunately, so recently freed first from narrowness and then from infidelity that he cannot forbear a polemical tone.

Independence of the South American Republics (The). By Frederic L. Paxson. Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia. 5×8 in. 264 pages. $2.

Three years ago, in his work on the "Diplo-

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matic Relations of the United States and Spanish America," Mr. Latané gave a much-needed outline of the wars of liberation waged by the new republics in the early part of the preceding century. Mr. Paxson's study is a necessary complement to Mr. Latané's work, and is indeed an exhaustive account, since, for the first time, the diplomatic correspondence of the American and British Foreign Offices and the archives of the Adams family have now been thoroughly explored. The work might almost have been entitled "The Foreign Policy of John Quincy Adams," since it necessarily concerns itself in great part with his course during the eight years in which he was Secretary of State. Mr. Paxson has done one signal service in bringing out the fact that, even more completely than has been surmised, John Quincy Adams was the real head of the Monroe Administration, and was the real power behind the throne as regards the Monroe Doctrine. Furthermore, the author shows that the Monroe Doctrine itself was in process of formation for many years before it was enunciated in 1823. Finally, the present study throws new light upon the rivalry between John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay. Thus we have a work which will attract the immediate attention of every student of American history, and the attention will be well repaid.

Man in the Camlet Cloak (The): Being an Old Writing Transcribed and Edited. By Carlen Bateson. Illustrated. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, Ohio. 5×8 in. 320 pages. $1.50.

"Miss Träumerei:" A Weimar Idyl. By Albert Morris Bagby. Illustrated. (Fourth Edition.) Published by the Author, 18 W. 34th Street, New York. 5×8 in. 292 pages. $1.50.

A pleasant love story set in the Weimar of Liszt's last days. The musical atmosphere is successfully conveyed to the reader. It is that of a hothouse. The moist adulation which was the very breath of the "dear master" becomes somewhat suffocating at times; but that is not the fault of the book. There is plenty of opportunity of breathing drier air in the course of the story. The characters are interesting, fairly distinct, wholesome and human. The reader's interest is carried leisurely along. The book is better than most musical novels.

Municipal Affairs. Vol. VI. No. 4. Municipal Operation and Public Franchises. Reform Club, Committee on City Affairs, Pine Street, New York. 6½×9½ in. 374 pages. $1.

The current issue of "Municipal Affairs" is a volume of nearly four hundred pages containing the papers read before the convention on municipal ownership of public franchises held under the auspices of the Reform Club in New York last February. There is no other volume which presents so well both sides and all phases of the problem dealt with. This is high praise, but it is given without qualification.

Mutineers (The). By Eustace L. Williams. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5×7¼ in. 291 pages. $1, net.

A school story dealing with a faction fight between two societies, the evil results in athletics, and the final triumph of the mutineers or independents in a great ball game. We regret to say that the boys of both factions talk and act like rowdies.

My Child and I: In Sickness and Health from Pre-Natal Life until Sixteen. By Mrs. F. L. S. Aldrich, M.D. P. W. Ziegler & Co., Philadelphia, Pa. 6×9 in. 429 pages.

New International Encyclopædia (The). Edited by Daniel Coit Gilman, LL.D., Harry Thurston Peck, Ph.D., L.H.D., and Frank Moore Colby, M.A. Vol. XI. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 7×10 in. 1,050 pages.

New Testament Apocryphal Writings. Edited by James Orr, D.D. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 4×5¼ in. 137 pages. 60c., net.

One Woman (The). By Thomas Dixon, Jr. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 350 pages. $1.50.

A dime novel—except for price, typography, and—save the mark!—religion. A triumph of crudeness and vulgarity.

R. F. & H. L. Doherty on Lawn Tennis. Illustrated. The Baker & Taylor Co., New York. 5×8 in. 233 pages. $1.50.

Beginners and experts alike may find in this volume much suggestion as to the detail of play in tennis. It is written by men who are champions through skill rather than severity of play. The value of their lessons is doubled by the many and excellent illustrations throughout the book.

"Ropes of Sand:" Verses. By Joseph Jenkins Lee. Published by Robert Grier Cooke, New York. 6×9 in. 15 pages.

Solar Electric Distribution and Sun Habitation. By Alexander Young. Illustrated. C. E. Cochrane & Co., Laporte, Ind. 5×6½ in. 132 pages. $1.

Stories from the Hebrew. By Josephine Woodbury Heermans. Illustrated. Silver, Burdett & Co., New York. 4½×7½ in. 178 pages.

Two Twice-Told Tales. By John Jacob Meyer. (Reprint from the University of Chicago Decennial Publications. First Series, Vol. VI.) The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 8×11 in. 11 pages. 25c.

Vigilantes (The). By Mrs C. C. Ellerson. Illustrated. Walker-Ellerson Publishing Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 254 pages.

Virgil's Æneid: Books I.-VI. Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary by Jesse Benedict Carter. Illustrated. (Twentieth Century Text-Books.) D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 386 pages,

We have often wondered why most of the school editions of Cæsar, Cicero, and Virgil have been left unillustrated. Not only does the text of each author lend itself well to illustration, but the boys' and girls' interest should be taken into account. We are glad to see that Professor Carter has made his edition much more interesting to young pupils (and also to their elders) by the quaint pictures which have been included in this volume. It has, however, another and greater merit. Its introduction and notes have evidently been prepared first of all for the use of the boys and girls themselves and only very secondarily for the use of teachers. We observe also that the notes have not been loaded down with convenient phrases of translation. Professor Carter justly believes that the pupil should work out the rendering without such assistance.

Whitewash. By Ethel Watts Munford. Illustrated. Dana Estes & Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 319 pages.

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